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State Departments of Education and National Defense*

By J. Henry Highsmith

Director, Division of Instruction, North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction

State Departments of Public Instruction will coöperate wholeheartedly and patriotically in carrying on the proposed defense program of the nation. Members of State Departments of Public Instruction are aware of their obligation, appreciate the significance of their opportunity to assist in this national emergency, and will contribute in every possible way to the success of this enterprise. As President Roosevelt said some days ago, "What the schools do may prove, in the long run, to be more decisive than any other factor in preserving the form of government we cherish."

State Departments of Public Instruction will seek to use maximally every school building, every shop, every laboratory, every piece of equipment, every person in administrative and instructional staffs, to promote the program of national defense.

In discussing this topic I wish to group what I have to say around four or five aspects of the problem: money, health, industrial arts, tolerance, and intelligence (in contrast to illiteracy).

1. *Money.*—Increased effort to carry out this program of national defense may mean that more money will have to be secured in the various states; for, as school men know, the problem of education in its final analysis is a problem of sufficient money wisely expended. If the school program is to be widened or extended to include activities not now being undertaken, it will be necessary to look for additional funds from some source. State Departments of Public Instruction will be under the necessity of going to their legislatures with these increased demands for service and for increased appropriations to discharge these new obligations. It will, perhaps, be more difficult to secure additional funds from state legislatures for the reason that the various security programs, worthy as they are, make increased demands upon state revenues. Our state legislatures find it increasingly difficult to find sufficient money to operate schools adequately and for other necessary purposes.

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It would have been a fine thing if some years ago or even last year national aid for education could have been provided. It was proposed that approximately $50,000,000 be made available for schools in the nation. This is a very conservative amount of money for such a gigantic undertaking, and yet $50,000,000 would have gone a long way, particularly in the South, to provide more adequate educational opportunities and to prepare for the present emergency. If more money is secured, it will have to come from state and local sources. In North Carolina about ninety per cent of all available funds will be paid out of state revenues. In most other states the increase will have to come most largely from local sources since the states do not contribute the major portion of revenue for school support.

In order to get adequate funds for educational purposes, particularly for operation in areas not now included in the school program but which must be included if proper attention is to be given to the defense program, it is quite clear that incomes, particularly in Southern states, will have to be increased. Higher incomes are necessary if larger amounts of money become available in the form of taxes. The states, therefore, more in need of money will have to increase their incomes in order to increase revenues for school purposes or for any other purpose, including the national defense.

2. *Health.*—Pertinent to consideration in a defense program is this question of health. We should not need to be reminded of the situation with regard to the physical fitness of American draftees in the World War. The importance of health is readily admitted but the program is too largely neglected in many school systems in the country. On October 3 Congressman P. L. Schwert introduced in the House of Representatives a Bill entitled "National Preparedness Act of 1940 for Health Education, Physical Education, and Recreation in Schools and School Camps." The primary purpose of the bill is to assist in making adequate provisions for health education, physical education, and recreation in schools and school camps—without Federal control over educational policies of states and localities. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941, $50,000,000 would be appropriated. This would increase $10,000,000 a year until 1946, after which $100,000,000 would be provided annually. If the amount of money proposed in this bill should become available for the purposes stated, it would enable the states, particularly the poorer ones, to do something constructive in providing for health education.

A program to strengthen national defense through improved health and physical fitness of every child in every school would attempt to do the following things: (a) secure and maintain a safe and healthful school environment, (b) make adequate provision for the school lunch, (c) provide health service for pupils, teachers and other school employees, (d) give instruction in health and safety, (e) make provision for physical activities intended to develop physical and social fitness, (f) provide recreational programs to

meet needs of children and youth after school and in vacation periods, and (g) establish educational camps to insure for all children the experiences that only come from close contact with nature.

An interesting experiment is being carried on in North Carolina, where a school health coördinating service program has been set up by the State Department of Public Instruction and the State Board of Health. A coordinator and a staff of nurses, dietitians, and physical education supervisors have been secured to coördinate all the efforts being made for the teaching and promotion of health in the various school administrative units in the State. The school health coördinating service personnel coöperates with county health departments, county and city educational departments, and any and all other individuals and organizations directly concerned with the health of school children or the public in general in any given unit. The program includes inspection, diagnosis, and teaching; it includes also health service, service which teachers under the law are not allowed to give if they could, and which on account of limited training they are not prepared to give.

This program will be carried on in about thirty school units over a five-year period, and it is hoped that the experiment will show how adequate health service may be provided for all the children of all the people, and thereby make a vital contribution to the national defense.

In connection with this program of physical and health education, let me say that I am unalterably opposed to the introduction of R.O.T.C. units in the high schools of this country. I can imagine very few things more undesirable than to put the more than six million high school boys and girls in this nation in any sort of military organization. They do not need to march around with tin swords and brass buttons. We need an adequate program of physical and health education from the first grade through the twelfth, for every child, and in this way produce that robust health so essential to the success of the defense program.

3. *Industrial Arts.*—It is quite evident now that we would be better prepared for this program of national defense if we had paid more attention to the teaching of industrial arts in our schools. Industrial arts mean the arts of industry, and it is quite clear that industry is to play a large part in national defense as it has always played a prominent part in any emergency of a military sort.

The sort of thing which should have been done a long time ago, in my opinion, is illustrated in the statement relative to approved general preemployment courses sent out from the Office of Education in Washington some time ago in connection with the national defense training program. The approved general employment courses for out-of-school youth in the national defense training program are such courses as would be helpful to

in-school youth before the emergency and now. It is suggested that four sorts of courses be given:

1. Operation, care, and repair of tractors, trucks, and automobiles, including both gas and diesel engines;
2. Metal work, including simple welds, tempering, drilling, shaping, and machinery repair;
3. Woodworking, including planning, construction, maintenance, and repair;
4. Elementary electricity, including operation, care, and repair of electrical equipment.

The courses suggested are exceedingly practical, and skill in the various lines suggested should be a part of the equipment of every American youth. There are two reasons why such work has not been offered in high schools, particularly rural high schools in the South. The first is money, to which reference has already been made. Schools, particularly rural schools, have lacked money for the purchase of equipment. In this connection also it should be said that high schools in rural districts have been too small to offer varied courses in industrial arts because the cost of instruction per student would be prohibitive. The second obstacle has been that of tradition. In the minds of many people the best possible training for national defense is a study of the classics and mathematics with only minor attention to practical subjects.

Much, however, has been done from the standpoint of agriculture, which is a distinctively vocational course, and in home economics, which is only partially vocational but eminently worthwhile from the standpoint of homemaking and, therefore, from the standpoint of national defense. There are thousands of boys and girls in the South and elsewhere in agricultural regions who have been taught agriculture scientifically. There should be increased emphasis upon this subject. In my opinion we shall have to make more extensive and scientific utilization of land, particularly in Southern regions, if we are to provide for national defense and if we are to have a sound scheme of economics.

The sum of $26,000,000 has been made available by act of Congress for continuing vocational school defense training, the money to be allotted through state boards of vocational education. This fund will make it possible to do constructive work in preparing young people for defense jobs in industry.

Every Southern state, so far as I know, needs to provide more adequately for industrial arts. The eleven states which compose the territory of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools should have, in my opinion, the sum of at least twenty-five million dollars to pay for teachers and equipment for a real program of industrial arts. State Departments of

Public Instruction can well sponsor such a program as a vital part of a national defense program.

4. *Tolerant Citizenship.*—State Departments of Public Instruction should seek to assist the million teachers of the twenty-five million boys and girls in our schools to realize the American dream, which is that "the many national, racial, and religious subgroups will blend to produce like symphonic music the most civilized cultural ensemble in the history of human relations."

We need to be reminded repeatedly, as Everett R. Clinchy has pointed out so clearly, that:

"*We of the United States are:*

One-third of a million, Indian
One-third of a million, Oriental, Filipino, and Mexican
60 million, Anglo-Saxon; 10 million, Irish
15 million, Teutonic; 9 million, Slavic
5 million, Italian; 4 million, Scandinavian
2 million, French; 13 million, Negro
1 million each, Finn, Lithuanian, Greek

"*In addition, we are:*

2 million, Anglican Episcopalian
40 million, Evangelical Protestant
1 million, Greek Catholic
4½ million, Jew
Two-thirds of a million, Mormon
One-tenth of a million, Quaker
22 million, Roman Catholic
One-half million, Christian Scientist"

We must teach till all understand that *E Pluribus Unum* means not only that we grew from many states into one state or nation, but we came out of many cultures and must be blended into one genuine American culture.

5. *Illiteracy.*—The supreme task for State Departments of Public Instruction is to see to it that boys and girls are given the best possible educational advantage while this preparation for national defense is being pushed to the limit. Phillips Brooks is reputed to have said that the race moves forward on the feet of little children. How necessary, then, that children should be trained, protected, and prepared in body, mind and spirit, to become intelligent defenders of a great nation. I do not know what the 1940 census will show with respect to illiteracy in the various states; very likely, however, the percentage will be too large in most places, particularly in the Southern States. It is quite clear that citizens of a republic should be literate. It is stated that the average citizen is about a sixth-grader with respect to intellectual attainments. The statistics show that altogether too many citi-

zens are third- and fourth-graders and that they are not functionally literate. We need to be reminded constantly that no great civilization has ever been nor can ever be built upon ignorance. Ignorance builds no factories, constructs neither highways nor railroads, blazes no airplane trails, founds and fosters neither worthy homes nor schools, and establishes and maintains no satisfactory form of government. Ignorance is the foe of the church, the enemy of the home, the obstacle of the school, the destroyer of the state, and is at this moment the menace of civilization in the whole world. What we need for the national defense is not less education, but more and better.

"Tis life not death for which we pant,
More life and fuller that we want."

Vocational Education for National Defense*

By R. L. Eyman

Dean, School of Education, Florida State College for Women

The moment we begin to plan a program of vocational education to meet the needs of our country we must bring into the foreground the total program of education to meet the nation's needs and the place that vocational education must have in this total program. An ideal program of vocational education can never be built when considered apart from the general education program for the country. As a matter of guidance and general education for all youth, we should, therefore, look into the elementary program as well as into the high school and adult education programs. Children in the elementary school should learn fundamentals of health, reading, writing, arithmetic, and should acquire such other fundamental tool knowledge as they will need as the years go along. Since recreation and desirable social experience are important to life, elementary training should make provision for that. Art and music have now become so important in our lives that much greater emphasis should be given to these fields of culture in the elementary school as compared to the earlier times in our country. Most people will earn a living with their hands, and they need a type of education that will enable them to learn to use their hands. Early in the elementary years a program of crafts education should be incorporated in the program of education. This means that the modern elementary school program of education, if it is to prepare children properly for the latitude of the secondary school program of education which they are to enter, must give a broad training in art, music, crafts, health, recreation, reading, writing, and numbers, as well as other desirable social experience.

Entering the secondary school the child should have had such a training that craft work is no new interest or new experience. A good background should have been laid in the elementary school for the beginnings of some specialization on the secondary school level. The first three years of the secondary school should differ very little from those of the elementary years save that the pupils may enter more extensively into the fields of health knowledge, recreation experiences, social studies, science, mathematics, music, art, literature, and crafts. There arrives a time in the secondary school years when a student may begin to train specifically for a vocation. This may be in the field of agriculture, home economics, trade and industrial education, commercial education, or distributive education, with almost

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any phase of specialization in any of these fields. The senior high school years should not be considered as a period when a finished program of training may be given for vocations. There has not yet been sufficient maturity to enable the student to take on employment. Neither has there been time or maturity to complete a program of finished vocational training. Again, the student may choose a profession as a vocation and select courses which lead to college training for the profession chosen.

A general program of arts and crafts must be offered through our entire program of education, beginning with the elementary school and running throughout the high school years. It serves as a basis for familiarizing students with the use of fundamental tools, for learning to work with their hands. It shortens the period of training whenever it becomes necessary to enter any field of specialization where skill is required in the use of tools and wherever work must be done by human hands. This general program of training could well end at about the close of the junior high school years. The last two or three years of the high school period could be used for varying degrees of specialization. A high school cannot provide all types of specialization and consequently cannot serve all the people in its community. There should be provided in every state a few vocational schools maintained by state and federal coöperation where opportunity for vocational specialization could be made available. Facilities should be provided whereby board, room, and tuition would not become a financial barrier that prevented those of small incomes from attending. In such schools, in coöperation with industry, the final training is to be given. From these schools youth may enter full time employment, enjoy social security, and become stable citizens. They are the economic foundation stones of a strong nation. Through coordinators from these schools students might be followed into industry and given the help necessary to enable final adjustments on the job.

The high school program should provide a rich background upon which vocational specialization should be built. Some larger high schools and high schools in the larger centers could offer vocational specialization in a few fields, depending upon the needs of the communities. A great deal of the vocational training for special trades will have to be carried on in industry on the job. For all such cases the schools should provide a good general background of education and the particular kind of basic technical training which will best fit students for trades they contemplate entering after high school graduation. Our high schools must study with great care the occupational opportunities of their students and offer basic technical training which will fit their students for given clusters of occupations. From this basic technical training students may enter any one of a number of occupations in this cluster and the final vocational training period on the job may be considerably shortened.

Diversified coöperative training programs should be built in many communities in connection with the high school program of vocational education. Here students may work part time in school and part time in industry. Any vocational education program worthy of the name vocational must give learners experience in industry as part of the training. Attitudes, knowledge, and skills of a trade can never be completely acquired outside of the trade itself; hence the necessity for part of the training to be done on the job in the trade.

Programs of vocational education in the public schools should never be closed to adults. Changing conditions make it necessary for many persons to train for new jobs, as well as to get further training to advance in or with the jobs they may already be holding. High schools and regional vocational schools should always be open for vocational training to persons of all ages and give such training as their curriculums will permit. Every high school should be a potential center for offering short-unit courses in such vocational training as adults in that community may need.

There should be a much closer coöperation between the United States Employment Service and the public schools, especially in the vocational training program maintained at public expense in our public schools. The United States Employment Service should be geared to the task of studying the supply and demand for jobs as applied to various occupations. It should analyze the character and amount of training needed to hold jobs successfully in the various occupations. This information could aid much in determining the training to be given by the school and just what part of the training should be given by industry or on the job itself. A continuing survey could be maintained by the Employment Service to show the supply and demand for workers in the various fields. This could serve as a guidance basis for directing youth in selecting fields of training. It could well serve as a stabilizing influence to employment. Such a program would tend to protect the nation against facing a crisis caused by our being entirely too short of trained workers in a given field at a given time. There would be little excuse for the piling up of excess workers trained for a given field. Information like this, coming from a continuous survey, would indicate the supply of jobs by occupations and the supply of trained workers by occupations. This might just as well be provided for a basis of producing trained workers as is the case in agriculture where monthly crop reports indicate crop conditions and prospects. We have an agricultural index that indicates supply and demand. Why not an index based on a continuing survey to show supply and demand of workers by occupations? With such information coming to the schools and to industry, a balance could be given to our training program. Likewise the United States Employment Service could cooperate with the schools and industry by assuming a greater responsibility for placement of those trained. Placement, as well as guidance, is abso-

lutely essential to a balanced program of vocational education. Neither industries nor the schools as they are now organized have the machinery for assuming placement responsibilities with any such degree of efficiency as in the case of the United States Employment Service if it should assume this work. Without a more adequate program of placement and guidance the nation suffers. Such a program can do much to absorb the shocks caused by lack of trained workers for any given occupation or, *vice versa*, to prevent excess workers and unemployment.

The idea of being a Jack-of-all-trades and master of none needs re-examination. When industry accepts the products of our high schools, it has a right to expect that the student has broad basic knowledge in crafts. A latitude of jobs is then open to beginners, and industry may have the benefit of this fact when placing those entering occupations. Persons so trained may make beginnings in a number of lines of work. Much of the work is not so highly specialized in industry that it requires long and extensive training. Quite to the contrary, much of it is rather general, but needs students with broad general knowledge. A high degree of specialization must come from skills acquired after much experience in the trade. Many times it becomes necessary to retrain persons for service. Here again a broad general training gives a background for beginnings at a number of points and thus makes it easier to find initial employment. If the schools are to extend the vocational training of youth prior to the time that they enter industry, the training should be along general lines before a high degree of specialization begins.

Schools need to assist industry in establishing a program of apprenticeships. Perhaps one of the best things that a school can do to assist industry in establishing these apprenticeships will be to give basic training along general lines in crafts so that a student may begin specialization at a number of points. This broad general training gives versatility, the benefits of which may be shared both by industry and those schools which train for entrance into industry. So it is a kind of Jack-of-all-trades idea. The schools have prepared students to begin a lot of jobs requiring a little knowledge; so they are potential candidates for many kinds of work. Industry with many kinds of work to be done has a rich field from which to draw beginning workers.

Our schools should organize themselves in such a manner that they may take students for part time or full time, for day or for evening vocational instruction, regardless of age, provided the students have reached sufficient chronological maturity to be accepted by industry. Whatever of diversification there may be in the occupational needs of the community, this diversification must be provided for in the vocational training of those who are to fill the jobs. This is a task for the schools in coöperation with whatever industries the community has in it. Whenever the schools and the voca-

tions of a community unite their forces to give training to the youth that they may successfully fit into the jobs in the community, and each carries its share of responsibility for this vocational training, we may well say that the schools have a vocational training program which builds a strong community and that the schools have an adequate program of training not only for national defense but for continuous national growth and strength. School leaders and leaders in the vocations of any community must coöperatively build the school's vocational training program to fit the needs of both the vocations and the youth who enter them.

Changing Concept of Teacher Education*

By H. L. Donovan

President, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College

Payson Smith, of Harvard University, speaking before the American Association of Teachers Colleges on the occasion of the celebration of a century of teacher education, said: "The most important educational issue before the people of our country a century ago was precisely the same one that is before them today. So long as there are schools, that issue will remain the most fundamental one. It relates to the qualification of teachers." No society can continue to progress unless it educates its children, and no education can be effective unless there are qualified teachers in the classrooms of the nation. This is the reason teacher education is so important to the well-being of the country.

Normal schools were founded in Massachusetts in 1839 under the dynamic leadership of Horace Mann. In the early days of these schools, the curriculum was very largely made up of the subject matter of the common schools of that day, with great emphasis on methods of instruction. This early pattern continued to dominate the practices of the normal schools for approximately three-quarters of a century. Colleges of liberal arts and universities frequently chided the teacher training institutions on their overemphasis on methods of teaching and their underemphasis on scholarship. Partially as a result of this challenge, there came into existence a little more than a quarter of a century ago teachers colleges which supplanted the normal schools. These new institutions shifted their emphasis from courses in methods of teaching to fundamental courses in history, literature, science, sociology, mathematics, art, music, and other cultural courses. As a result of this change in the curriculum, we find today the teachers colleges producing graduates who have a background of scholarship. After students have acquired a degree of scholarship, courses in the technique of teaching, psychology, methods, history of education, philosophy, and student teaching are required as the professional equipment of a teacher.

Another change that has taken place in teacher education in recent years is that of placing emphasis on the quality of the individual who is permitted to undertake preparation for teaching. There was a time in our history when it was thought that if one could not succeed in law, medicine, the ministry, or business, he might be a teacher. In 1751, when Franklin Academy was founded in Philadelphia, the charter stated as one of the aims of the

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institution "that a number of the poorer sort will be hereby qualified to act as schoolmasters in the country." That erroneous conception has passed. Institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers are now advising many of their students who would like to become teachers that they are not qualified to do so. Slowly, selection of entrants to the profession of teaching is becoming the practice of a great many institutions. Nothing can contribute more to the improvement of the schools of our country than a careful selection of the young people who plan to make teaching a lifework.

In the preparation of a teacher today, an attempt is made to prevent narrow specialization. Too early specialization of any kind should be avoided. The high school is looking for a teacher of science, not a chemist or biologist or physicist. Superintendents and school boards are eager to employ a teacher of social science rather than a specialist in history or government or economics or sociology. The demand is for a teacher who can interpret civilization instead of handing out encyclopedic facts about the colonial period, the tariff, slavery, secession, etc. The teacher of tomorrow will have a much broader general education than the teacher of the past has enjoyed.

There is a demand today that every teacher have a clear understanding of contemporary life. This means that he must be aware of what is going on in the world and that he must have a degree of appreciation and understanding of the social forces at work in society. The teacher is expected to live a more satisfying life as a person and to fulfill his responsibilities more intelligently as a citizen in order better to meet his professional obligations. A teacher is not completely satisfactory unless he is a participant in the activities of the community in which he resides. This is a changed concept of the function of the teacher in a community. Traditionally, the teacher has been looked upon as an academic hermit who should live a cloistered life far removed from the realities of the world. That day is past.

In many of the better schools today, teachers are using the resources of the communities in which they work as a part of the materials of instruction they are using in educating children. An awareness of the environment in which one lives is essential to an understanding of the nature of our world. Teachers are leading students to become conscious of the problems of health and the facilities for maintaining good health, the church and its influence upon the community, the educational system, the courts, the multitude of Federal and state agencies that have a bearing upon our lives, the slums and their problems, tenantry and its baneful influence, labor problems and problems of capital, the industry of the community, our dependence on agriculture, and everything in the environment that directly and indirectly affects the lives of the people of the community. All of this is grist for the mill of education in the modern school. This is indeed a transformation from the type of instruction offered in the schools a generation ago when

children were required to master the facts found in an uninteresting and uninspiring textbook. If teachers are to use the community resources in the education of children, those institutions educating teachers are required to prepare them to meet such responsibilities.

There is going on in the world today a gigantic struggle between nations that believe in the freedom of the individual and those countries that advocate the supremacy of the state. Whatever the outcome of this struggle may be in other parts of the world, this nation will remain free. Democracy must survive in our hemisphere. In order that we may better appreciate and understand a democratic way of life, it is essential that the schools of today practice democratic processes in their classrooms. The schools of this country have in the past been organized on a dictatorial plan, but everywhere today there are school administrators and teachers that are attempting to change this order. That children may fully understand the democratic way of life, schools are striving to introduce democratic procedures in their administration. Children are having a part in planning and executing school programs. This is an objective that is difficult to attain, but it is a process that is essential in developing a truly democratic society.

In order to prepare teachers who may be able to plan and execute democratic programs in the schools where they will teach, we have at the Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College invited our students to have a part in planning and directing the affairs of the College. In our institution each class elects two men and two women—a total of sixteen students—to attend all faculty meetings and to participate in the discussion of problems that arise in planning the work of the College. The junior and senior classes also elect four students each to serve on each committee of the College. On the social committee and the committee on the formulation of policies for the administration of the Student Union Building, students and faculty have equal membership. As a college, we are attempting to utilize every opportunity that students will take advantage of to educate them in the ways of democracy in the administration of the program of the institution.

In a democracy the sacredness of the personality of the individual is recognized. Each child must be educated as an individual in our American schools. His ability, aptitudes, and emotional life are taken into consideration. The school aims to develop to the fullest extent the personal qualities of the child. A recognition of individual differences as applied to the education of children is an achievement of our generation. The schools no longer attempt to turn out a uniform product. This approach to the education of individuals represents a changed conception of teaching. The teacher education institution, therefore, must produce a teacher who holds this concept of the individual and who knows how to develop the personality of each and every child.

In the teacher education institutions, we are constantly working on the

growth and development of the students who are preparing to be teachers. We strive in our work with them to lead them to understand their own personal growth and development. Considerable attention is given to the observation of the growth of children so that the prospective teachers may understand child development. Students in preparation for teaching are required not only to observe children at work in schools, but also to participate in the instruction of these children. This activity is often referred to as practice teaching or apprentice teaching. More time and emphasis are given to this phase of the education of a teacher today than formerly. Many schools require the student who plans to be a teacher to go into the classroom for a part of a year and work with children under the supervision and direction of a master teacher. This preliminary period of preparation is gradually being increased from time to time. Student teaching is now becoming somewhat comparable to the internship which young physicians experience before entering upon the practice of medicine. The teacher-education institution that is conscious of its responsibility is today making student teaching a vital and dynamic part of the education of a teacher.

Our concept of a teacher prepared to enter our schools today is that he be a well-selected individual, intelligent, liberally educated, understanding the ways of democracy, and skilled in the techniques of teaching.

Individual Security and National Defense*

By P. A. Roy, S.J.
President, Loyola University

No nation is secure if its citizens are dissatisfied. It is not secure from within. Hence it cannot be secure from without. A strong national defense, in a crisis such as we face, must begin with a contented citizenry. Only such stand ready to make the great sacrifices that are now necessary to defend our country and our government.

Our people will not be content if they do not feel secure in their individual rights. The first citizens of the United States were not content under the newly drafted Constitution. They believed that it did not guarantee to them such security. Hence the first Congress of the United States, at its first session in 1789, drew up the famous Bill of Rights guaranteeing the individual security that the people demanded. Our early fathers knew the first requisite for national defense. Any system of national defense in this country that is not based upon the inviolable individual security of our people will eventually crack and crumble.

In planning at present to strengthen our national defense, our government will do well to bear in mind just what powers it has and, what is more important, just what powers it has not. It is a fundamental principle of our form of government that the people rule the country through their elected representatives. Government officials from the highest to the lowest are employees of the people. The will of the majority of the people is supposed to determine the official actions of these employees. It is possible that some legislators and executives may think that they would do better work if they always could act on their own initiative without having to take the time and the trouble to find out what the majority of the people want. Such a way of governing might be more efficient, but it just is not our way. We are jealous of our individual right to participate in the government of our country. We hold that the government is for the people, not the people for the government. We are not puppets of the state. We, the people, are the state. The will of the najority of us must be done. We want to stregthen our national defense. But we want to do it in accordance with the majority will of the people. Any other method is an arrogation of power and a threat to our individual security.

It is a sound military principle that an army marches and fights on its stomach. Likewise the strength or weakness of any national defense ulti-

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mately depends upon the stomach of the people. An avowed purpose of our national Constitution is to promote the general welfare of the people. If this means anything, it means that every citizen of our country must have an opportunity to get work and to keep at work; it means that just wages must be paid for work; it means that no money-mad individuals are to climb to peaks of wealth by tramping ruthlessly and rough-shod on slavish bodies of overworked and underpaid employees. We citizens of this country are slaves of no man. There must be no "forgotten men" if there is to be a strong national defense. What man would want to help to defend a government that keeps his stomach empty? What man can be expected to make sacrifices to see his family continue in want and misery? Every man worthy of his manhood must demand for himself and for every member of his family individual security in a decent way of living.

The Bill of Rights guarantees us freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of worship. We are ready always to make even extreme sacrifices to defend this trinity of freedom. We see no reason why we should make any sacrifice to defend a form of government that may even threaten our individual security in any one of these phases of freedom. We would never submit to intellectual goose-stepping with master politicians or czars of wealth setting the pace. We have the right to know the truth and the whole truth in matters that affect our life, our welfare, our security, our liberty. We would never allow despotic hands of oppression to choke the voice of our press. We have a right to worship God according to the guidance of our conscience without let or hinderance of anyone. We would never allow anyone to penalize us because of our religious beliefs and worship.

We have confidence in our government. It must have confidence in us. We will coöperate with our government in strengthening our national defense. But it must be a defense of our country as we want that country to be, a defense of our government as we vote that government to be, a defense of our individual security and of the welfare of all our people. Without whole-hearted coöperation with the government in strengthening our national defense we cannot hope, in this present crisis, to preserve very long our individual security, our national integrity, our welfare and peace and happiness and freedom. Our government and we, now more than ever, must be one in thought, one in feeling, one in planning, one in action.

We educators have the serious duty of placing squarely before our students the whole truth of our present national and international situations, the total philosophy of our political, economic, and social way of living. We have no right to color that presentation with our personal prejudices. We must be objective, not subjective. If we cannot be objective, we have no place in the profession of teaching. Each student has the individual right to learn the truth. Too many educators—for what reason I cannot say—have been bent on so-called "debunking" the spirit of patriotism, loyalty to

our democratic way of living, enthusiasm about the splendid opportunities offered by our country. They have emphasized beyond all due proportion the weaknesses in our system of government. We must present facts, not feelings. We must encourage coöperation with the government and with each other to improve our opportunities, to correct our faults, and to safeguard our individual security.

United we shall withstand attacks from without or from within. Divided we shall fall. I know that we shall stand united.

The Southern Rural Scene's Challenge to Education*

By John E. Brewton

Professor of Education, George Peabody College for Teachers

Southern rural schools must come to grips with the realities of community living in the rural South. The South, according to recent studies,[1] is a land with a super-abundance of natural resources, a fertile land with a provident climate, a land upon which lives a prolific people so full of potential energy as to be able to build a new social and economic order, capable of building a great Southern civilization.

Paradoxically enough, the South, according to these same studies, is a land of waste, wasted land and wasted people, a land where 97,000,000 acres have been rendered useless by erosion, leaching, and overcropping, a land where 1,831,000 tenants, more of them whites than Negroes, eke out a bare existence, a land devoted to a crumbling cotton economy and a precarious tobacco economy which are reducing the people to a state of economic insufficiency, a land which has lost 3,500,000 people through emigration, and a land where the people lack technological skills, artificial wealth, and institutional services.

In no other region of the country is there so great an opportunity for the forces of social change to develop a people, socially and physically, culturally and materially, as exists in the South today.

Rural education in the South is a fabric of many designs and contrasts. Against a background of human and natural abundance, of human and natural waste, of complacency and aggressiveness, of the backward glance and the dream of the new economy, move the figures of the teacher, the child, the parent, the supervisor, the administrative officer, and the teacher-education institution. In the educational matrix of the rural South they meet, be that one-room shack or spacious building, and in the quality of the flow of life within its walls is dimly foreshadowed the quality of life in the rural South of tomorrow.

In the South the problem of rural education assumes great magnitude. Three of every four teachers employed in the South are teaching in rural schools; three of every four children enrolled in Southern schools are attending rural schools; and nine of every ten school buildings in the South are

* An address delivered over radio station WREC, Memphis, Tennessee, December 11, 1940, in connection with the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

[1] Odum, Howard W., *Southern Regions of the United States.* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1936.

located in rural areas. Obviously, the greatest educational enterprise in the South is rural education. It is also obvious that in the South educational problems of administration, of supervision, of teaching, and of teacher education are largely rural problems.

Although over one-half the consolidated schools of the nation are located in the Southern states, the typical rural school in the region is still small. While making more progress than other regions toward consolidation, the South still has over 30,000 one-teacher schools, about 15,000 of them schools for white children, and about 15,000 of them schools for Negro children. Over two million children of the South attend one- and two-teacher schools. It is a little premature, in the light of these facts, to speak of the passing of the little red schoolhouse in the South.

Rural Schools Offer Limited Educational Opportunities

One-half of the children of America and three-fourths of the children of the South attend rural schools where educational opportunities are more limited than in urban schools. Glaring educational inequalities set heavily against the rural child. He receives in neither quantity nor quality the educational opportunity of the child who attends an urban school. In rural schools, length of term is shorter, teachers with less training are employed at lower salaries for shorter lengths of time, percentage of teachers residing in communities where they teach is smaller, attendance is poorer, progress of pupils is more retarded, equipment and instructional materials are more meager, and buildings are more inadequate than in urban schools. Since recent studies of local school units reveal that, at present, size of school conditions significantly the educational opportunities offered children, educational opportunities are even more limited by the great number of small schools in rural areas.

Opportunities in rural schools are further limited because America has patterned its rural schools too much after urban practices, ignoring country life. This is probably the most serious limitation of rural schools. Rural schools are failing to direct their efforts toward the consideration and solution of problems of significance to community living in rural America—health, farming and farm crafts, home-making, recreation, coöperative economics, appreciation of the natural environment, understanding of vocational opportunities in rural communities and in farm life, and conservation of natural resources. Lack of adult education programs and adult services, lack of activities designed to extend the school into the community, lack of coördination and use of all social and welfare agencies—all these lacks are keenly felt in rural communities. School terms unadjusted to planting and harvesting seasons, schools divorced from their communities by consolidation, and use of textbooks and courses of study designed primarily to meet the

needs of graded urban schools are some of the evidences of urban practices being imposed upon rural schools.

Providing Adequate Educational Opportunities

Adequate educational opportunities for rural children may be provided in two ways: first, through consolidation and the improvement of consolidated schools; and second, through improving small rural schools. Significant progress in improving educational opportunities in rural areas will not be made until two fundamental facts are recognized: first, that consolidation in and of itself does not insure an effective and adequate educational program; and second, that an effective and adequate educational program can be provided in the small rural school. The sooner we become conscious of these facts and their implications and recognize that the small rural school can and should still play an important role in American rural life and that the consolidated school can and should play a more important role than it is now playing, and begin an administrative, supervisory, and instructional program in these schools based on the needs of rural people and of a rural society, the sooner will these schools become forces for the improvement of rural life in America.

An effective educational program can be provided for children in the small rural school. This statement is not invalidated by the fact that in many small rural schools the educational program is not effective. Causes of ineffectiveness are many. Chief among them are poor buildings and equipment, inadequately trained and underpaid teachers, little if any supervision, and a neglectful attitude on the part of the administration. Given the advantages enjoyed by urban schools, such as adequately-trained teachers, sufficient instructional materials, and enlightened supervision and administration, small rural schools can be made effective.

It should be recognized that the small rural school possesses certain inherent advantages over urban schools. We have concentrated our attention so fervently upon the disadvantages of the small ungraded rural school that we have been blinded to the potentialities and advantages inherent in the little red schoolhouse itself and in its rural setting. If in these schools real learning is to take the place of rote learning, we must recognize and utilize the inherent advantages of rural schools and of country life in our rural educational program. Children must stop sitting in these schools all day waiting for something to happen that never happens. They must cease the day-by-day meaningless recitations or incantations. Rural children and rural teachers must become vibrantly alive and active.

There must be more abundant living and consequently more abundant learning in rural schools. Rural teachers must capitalize upon the inherent advantages of these schools and develop a superior program of living and

learning. These advantages are to be discovered in the small ungraded school itself as well as in the rural setting.

Among the advantages of the small ungraded rural school are: (1) a more normal family-like living situation in which the children of all or more than one grade live and learn together in one room; (2) the existence of plain bare realities which force children to assume responsibilities and become active good citizens of the school if they are to be comfortable; (3) the educational value of association of older with younger children and of younger with older children, the older children having the opportunity to grow through assuming human responsibility for the younger ones, and the younger having the opportunity to learn through natural contacts with older children; (4) physical facilities which in their very inadequacy may serve to stimulate teachers and children to resourceful and creative activity, certainly, in any case, a flexible physical setting which lends itself to much improvement suggestive of real educational experiences; (5) fewer pupils, allowing teacher to know individual children and provide for their individual needs and interests; (6) intimacy between pupils and teachers; and (7) closeness of school and community.

The rural setting provides further potential advantages. Among these are: (1) a rural environment relatively simple, yet varied and rich, and correspondingly more understandable and teachable; (2) a rural community life which may be looked upon whole, not piecemeal, thus making its social processes more easily examined and more readily understood; (3) rural situations in which there are many possibilities for real learning activities, such as participation in community enterprises; (4) an environment replete with opportunities for first-hand experiences in producing food, transporting produce, protecting and conserving life and health, safeguarding property and natural resources; and (5) brooks, trees, animals, fields, green things growing—all that nature has meant to man down through the ages.

Before much progress is made toward improving the educational opportunities of rural children a fundamental attack must be made upon rote teaching, that monotonous, meaningless, owl-eyed attention to drill in formalistic studies so characteristic of rural schools both consolidated and ungraded. A mumbo-jumbo of rote recitation is resounding in rural schools throughout the Southland. Rows upon rows of boys and girls are being drilled in a routine manner which neither teacher nor pupils pretend to understand and which they go through from day to day in a fatalistic way. In too many rural schools teaching is almost completely detached from the life of communities and the interests of children. Too many rural schools are serving as preludes to peonage when they should be serving as forces for the enrichment of rural life.

The Challenge

The deficiencies and the potentialities of the Southern rural scene and the needs of Southern rural schools challenge the best in educational leadership and educational statesmanship. Let the Southern rural school become a center of happy community life—serving the home, building health, fostering wholesome recreation, recognizing civic needs, encouraging scientific agriculture—and there will come into rural life a new vitality.

The Influence of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on Secondary Education in the South*

By T. Q. Srygley

Assistant Superintendent, Port Arthur School District, Texas

The growth of education in the United States has been peculiar from the standpoint of logical development. We did not develop our elementary schools first, then our secondary schools, and then our colleges and universities. Higher education came first, developing before our system of secondary and elementary education. On the surface this looks somewhat illogical; however, when we consider the facts of life, we know that many of our early great leaders were not the products of organized society, since they were pioneers in the various fields of endeavor. It is true that these leaders benefitted by their environment, but they stood head and shoulders above their associates and pointed the way, the result being that their influence was felt. Someone has sarcastically said that if Plato and Jesus would come back to the world, they would not have the entrance requirements to get into any of our colleges. Technically this might be true, but at the same time these two leaders in their day and time pointed out to their associates the things which they should do in order to progress. They pointed the way for others and created patterns of life for others to follow.

The Civil War left the South in a pitiful economic state. Secondary education was carried on mainly by a few educated men who had been fortunate enough to attend some college prior to the war. The schools which these men conducted tried to prepare pupils for college. The colleges themselves which were able to operate after the war found their student bodies including pupils of the secondary school which rightfully belonged either in the public high school or the private preparatory school.

The late Chancellor J. H. Kirkland of Vanderbilt University, being a man of vision and foresight, believed that colleges should band themselves together in some type of association for the study of common problems. A committee of the faculty appointed by him invited a number of delegates from Southern colleges and universities to attend a meeting in Atlanta in 1895. The purpose of the meeting was threefold: first, to organize Southern schools and colleges for coöperation and mutual assistance; second, to elevate the standards of scholarship and to effect uniformity of entrance re-

* An address delivered over radio station WMC, Memphis, Tennessee, December 11, 1940, in connection with the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

quirements; third, to develop preparatory schools and cut off this work from the colleges.

The following institutions were charter members of this association which was formed in 1895: Vanderbilt University, University of North Carolina, the University of the South, the University of Mississippi, Washington and Lee University, and Trinity College (now Duke University). Since that time the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has grown and at the present time covers eleven Southern states with over 200 college members, 1,016 public high school members, and 184 private school members. Also, during the time since 1895 the Southern Association has organized three commissions which carry on the work of the Association. The Secondary Commission, dealing with the accrediting and problems of the high schools and private schools, has been organized twenty-eight years. The Higher Commission, dealing with the accrediting and problems of higher education, has been organized for twenty-three years. The Commission on Curriculum Problems and Research, dealing with special problems of higher education and secondary education, has been organized for five years.

The American ideal of education is based on local initiative. The influence of the Southern Association has not been to standardize high schools and colleges, but through a system of definite standards the level of high school education and college education has been raised. While we think of our local high schools as being owned and operated through local initiative and mainly through local taxation to supplement this local effort, the Southern Association has supplied the necessary stimulation in the form of so-called standards. These standards have indicated in objective terms the characteristics of an acceptable high school, private school, college, or university.

It is a psychological fact that individuals need to be members of the society in which they move. It also follows that groups of individuals or schools need to belong to an organization in which they may be stimulated and enjoy common interests and problems. As transportation and communication became faster and better, and as county lines and state lines gradually broke down and as people moved from one place to another, it was necessary for a high school or college to have an association through which common understandings of work and an exchange of problems might take place. With the development of education in the South, the Southern Association has been a leader in making possible the necessary exchange of ideas and the necessary exchange of problems on some common basis and understanding. For example, if a pupil moves from the state of Texas as a member of an accredited Southern Association school and he enrolls in a school in Virginia, the administrators of these two schools have common terms for describing this transfer of credits and the acceptance of work done by the pupils in

question is beneficial to both schools and also to the pupil who transfers.

The standards which have been developed by the Southern Association for secondary schools have included a high level of preparation for the leader of the secondary school. In other words, all high school members of the Southern Association must have men and women at their heads with adequate preparation in school administration and supervision. The Southern Association has also stated that the term of the high school must be at least 175 days. This in itself has been a great stimulation to state and local school boards, and it has been the source of helping to guarantee that the child will get a minimum school term of nine months.

The faculty of the high school must also be prepared both academically and professionally. This is a further guarantee that pupils will be taught by prepared teachers. The teacher is protected also in the number of pupils which he teaches. This is a guarantee that the individual pupil will receive individual attention from his teacher, and that the teacher will not be overloaded to an appreciable degree. The Southern Association has also said that the schools must have adequate laboratories and adequate classrooms and other physical equipment necessary to a well-rounded high school. Teachers are also protected from inexcusably low salaries by the Southern Association which sets up an obtainable minimum salary.

Certain phases of the secondary schools are considered in a general way. For example, the Southern Association requires that member schools be members of their state athletic organizations.

Probably one of the outstanding influences of the Southern Association on secondary schools has been with regard to the school libraries. With the remarkable and accelerated development of printing, which in turn meant more teaching materials and supplementary materials, it was clearly recognized that pupils could not receive a rich high school experience without an adequate library. The library standards of the Southern Association have guaranteed to the pupils of the South that their high school experience will be greater than merely the experience with a few textbooks. High schools that are members of the Southern Association must have a definite number of well-selected books, exclusive of textbooks, in addition to having access to daily newspapers and a list of well-suited and selected periodicals. The Southern Association school members must also have trained librarians in order to make sure that the investment which the local community has made in books and periodicals will be used to the best advantage of all concerned. The library standards further state that the local community shall appropriate a definite amount each year to make sure that books which have been worn out will be replaced and that new books and periodicals will be purchased. Then to further the efficiency of the library situation, the library standards include one which has to do with the use of the library. The pupils of the high school must know how to use the library. The type of equipment

which the library shall have is also included in the standards. If schools meet these standards, it is safe to conclude that the pupils in the schools will benefit thereby.

It might be noted with a great deal of pride that the influence of the library standards on the member high schools of the South has made an outstanding contribution to the experience of Southern education. In fact, it has been recognized by other sections of the United States that the South has led the way and in fact surpassed most of the regions of the United States in having adequate materials in the library, trained librarians, well-equipped libraries and excellent use of the library.

At the present time the Southern Association in the secondary field is further stimulating high schools to do greater things in a more efficient manner for the pupils. The Southern Association is using the results of a $250,000 study recently completed in the field of secondary education which furnishes the basis for evaluation of local initiative and the adequacy of the local school in meeting the needs of the pupils of the school regardless of the school in which they might be found. All of the best principles and practices of secondary education have been concentrated in a form which is adaptable for a local high school. During the next five years every high school in the Southern Association will be required to apply this study to itself with the idea of stimulating further practices which will result in more efficiency in the education of pupils in the local environment. Here again there is no effort to standardize, but to inspire and stimulate.

The Southern Association is also sponsoring a special study in thirty-three Southern high schools in eleven states which has been operating for two years with the hope that ways and means might be found for a single high school to provide in its own environment the richest experience based on the needs and interests of the pupils of any locality. Local initiative is the key. This study, known as the Southern Association Study, is beginning to bear fruit, and much will be heard from it in a few years.

It has been pointed out that the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has been very influential in the development of secondary education in the South, that standards have been set up for stimulation and standardization has not resulted, and that member schools of the Southern Association must meet certain standards which guarantee in a rich way that high school pupils regardless in which of the eleven states they may live will receive a well-rounded high school experience with well-trained teachers, with well-trained leadership, with adequate equipment and an adequate library. It has also been suggested that since accrediting as such has been fairly well mechanized, the Southern Association is using the best materials and the best type of stimulation which the nation has to offer and is conducting studies which will aid schools in the future to do still greater things for the children of the South.

Undesirable Duplications in NYA and Local Educational Services*

By H. Reid Hunter

Assistant Superintendent in Charge of High Schools, Atlanta, Georgia

One of the major social problems which our country has had to face during the last ten years is what is generally known as the Youth Problem. With the coming of occupational specialization and high-pressure production, it has become increasingly difficult for youth to fit into the present economic order. During the recent depression, the Youth Problem became generally recognized as one of our chief concerns. The defects in our social organization became apparent when thousands of high school and college graduates could not find employment in business or industrial organizations, or in other occupational fields. During the past ten years there has been a growing tendency for city, state and national governments to develop special methods and procedures, as well as to create new agencies and institutions, for meeting the needs of young people who could not find employment. As the employment problem became more acute, the federal government took the lead and initiated a number of programs to meet the emergency.

Since 1932 we have increasingly turned to the national government for assistance in finding worthwhile employment for youth. The result has been that our national Congress has enacted laws making it possible for the various "alphabetic" agencies to coöperate with local and state governments in developing special institutions to serve youth. Federal help has come in the form of grants for construction of school buildings, increased appropriations for vocational education, establishment of the CCC, NYA student aid in the form of high school and college scholarships, "workships," and resident work projects of various types. The efforts to meet these problems of youth have frequently developed trends which have not been in keeping with the traditional pattern or framework of education. These have been unusual times and it has been necessary to try new methods and procedures.

Many school people have come to realize that our traditional high school, with emphasis on academic subjects and preparation for college, has not been of much value to a large group of students from sixteen to twenty-five years of age. Many of these students are from the low-income bracket of wage earners, and do not have the ability to do the academic high school program. They are not interested in attending college, they cannot suc-

* An address delivered over radio station WMPS, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1940, in connection with the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

cessfully master the traditional college curriculum. Our high schools are doing a better job in training for college entrance the upper ten or fifteen per cent of our high school population, but we are failing in our educational program to make adequate provisions for a large per cent of our high school population.

There has also developed the problem of placing in private employment this large group of youth, many of whom are without training for any particular vocation. The apprentice system has not been able to absorb many new workers on account of the unemployment situation.

One of the most serviceable agencies which has been created to meet this situation is the National Youth Administration. This agency has a two-fold program: (1) to encourage students to remain in high school or college (This is done by giving financial aid in the form of scholarships.); (2) to provide work projects for out-of-school youth from sixteen to twenty-five years of age.

The student aid program provides scholarships for high school and college students. The scholarships are more in the form of "workships," for the students are given jobs in which they render service to earn these scholarships. High school pupils receive from $4.00 to $6.00 per month, undergraduate college students from $12.00 to $15.00, and graduate students from $25.00 to $40.00 per month. The student aid or scholarship program has met with almost universal acceptance and approval by both the school people and the general public. Annual appropriations have been increased. Thousands of high school and college students, who otherwise would have been compelled to leave school and join the huge army of the unemployed, have continued in school.

The program of the NYA for providing jobs and work experiences for youth has not been so easily administered. The work projects program is designed for the purpose of providing work relief for young men and women between sixteen and twenty-five years of age. During the earlier history of the NYA at least ninety per cent of all workers on a youth project were supposed to have relief status. There has been a growing tendency to minimize the relief aspect of the program and develop the NYA as an agency to meet the need of youth regardless of economic status. This is a hopeful trend. There have been a large number of work activities such as construction work, consisting of roadside improvement, remodeling and repair of buildings, and construction of recreational facilities. The non-construction activities have been work in libraries, making surveys, rendering clerical and stenographic service for governmental or social agencies.

Some of the work projects are operated in a manner which makes it possible for young people to remain at home and gain work experiences in NYA workshops. There are also resident projects which are many and varied. On the resident projects the students live in a center, and all edu-

cational and work activities are carried on in the center. The NYA project which has evoked much criticism is the kind which has developed into a type of institution somewhat similar to vocational high schools or junior technical schools. Many school people have seen in these federally operated workshops and resident projects an attempt on the part of the NYA to develop a dual system of vocational education.

These work projects have developed extensive programs, using thousands of dollars worth of equipment, a large staff of supervisors, directors, teachers, advisers, and counselors. In some parts of the country there has been a tendency for the NYA to use local facilities to provide the supplementary educational training. In other communities, expensive quarters are rented or extensive buildings constructed by the NYA to house the work projects. It is this type of program which has aroused opposition by the vocational education people, and even the labor unions in some communities have vigorously opposed the NYA program of vocational training.

During the summer of 1940, a concerted drive was made in Congress for a large appropriation for defense training to be expended by the NYA. This would have definitely put the NYA in the field for training workers for essential war industries. Several conferences were held in Washington. Superintendents of schools and leaders in the field of vocational education made the plea to the Commissioner of Education and to their representatives in Congress that the regularly organized public schools, manned and staffed by specially trained vocational teachers, should be employed to do the defense training rather than to have the NYA duplicate local facilities and develop a dual system of vocational training. The bill which finally passed Congress stipulated that all educational or vocational training should be conducted by the regularly organized schools and the work shops providing work experiences be carried on by NYA. Thus it now appears that a change has been made to have the NYA return to the major purpose for which it was created.

Many of those who have carefully studied this tendency of the NYA to duplicate local educational effort have come to the following conclusions:

1. School leaders should recognize that our traditional high schools and colleges are not meeting the needs of at least fifty per cent of our youth, and we should modify our high school program in such a manner as will more nearly meet the needs of a large number of youth of a type now engaged in NYA work projects.
2. Local school authorities should coöperate with the NYA in providing housing and equipment facilities and should organize a functional program of education to be made available to all students who need this type of training and work experience.
3. Duplication, or the development of a parallel system of vocational or special schools, should be discouraged.

4. The NYA high school and college scholarship program supervised by local school officials should be continued and made an integral part of our educational system.
5. Every effort possible should be made to provide worthwhile work experiences of a practical and useful nature which will help students find and occupy jobs in private industry.
6. Opportunities should be provided for supplementing the work experiences with further educational training which will improve the general educational qualifications of youth, this supplementary educational training to be given by teachers who are to work under local school control.
7. The federal government should appropriate funds to the several states to be spent by state and local school authorities in giving both vocational and supplementary training to youth.

In conclusion, let me say that school people and the public in general should be informed concerning the opportunities offered by the NYA for helping youth remain in school and should also know of the ways and means for youth to be provided work experiences. The federal government has recognized hitherto unmet needs of youth and has demonstrated ways and means of helping our young people. School leaders should recognize that this is a problem which deserves the coöperation of all in its solution. These results can come only through close coöperation of local, state, and federal authorities.

College Women and the National Crisis*

By Dice R. Anderson
President, Wesleyan College

I am asked to speak on the subject of "College Women and the National Crisis." There would be good reason for asking a college woman herself to speak on this subject, instead of a mere man, and there are well-qualified college women in the Southern Association who would discharge this assignment most acceptably. However, the present speaker has had long association with colleges for women and with individual college women, and their organizations, and has a very sincere appreciation of their sense of responsibility and of their fine attitude, as well as of their ability.

I suspect that college women may have a feeling that they need not always be segregated in the consideration of great problems. Essentially they are human beings, citizens with the same obligations that others have. College women are just women, plus the additional training which college gives. However, of course it is true that in some respects the responsibility of women is different from that of men. For instance, in case of war they will not be asked to bear arms. Too, women have a peculiar power and effectiveness that is all their own, and also with college women it is true that to whom much is given of them much shall be required.

College women, I take it, have viewed with great concern the gradual development of the national crisis, chiefly resulting from the most unhappy situation in Europe and a large part of the world. They have seen with distress the gradual development of the totalitarian philosophy, and totalitarian governments, and the discounting of the ideals that they thought a few years ago would soon encompass the earth. They have seen the minimizing of the individual in view of national ambitions, the persecution of a great race, and the destruction of minorities. They have observed with great anxiety the overthrow of cherished civil rights in a large part of the world. They have seen the conquest of splendid peoples, unable to defend themselves against vast material power and organization. They have watched armies overrun Austria, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and France. They have observed with great anxiety the struggle of noble England, which so many Americans regard as "Mother Country," and feel apprehension as to the ability of those English people to withstand assault from the air and on the sea. They have also gradually had to surrender their faith in the complete protective power of enveloping oceans and

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* An address delivered over radio station WREC, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1940, in connection with the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

with great sorrow have come to a realization of the necessity in this country for the building up of huge navies, great air fleets, and multitudinous army camps. They have had apprehension of the result of the inevitable expenditure of the nation's resources and the upping constantly of debt. They have had fear of the approach of the horrible conditions in Europe to this hitherto favored land, or the inevitable involvement of this peace-loving country in the hatred and bloodshed of Europe and the Far East. They have seen these things grow toward actualities during the last few years with sorrow, but likewise with determination common to that of all loyal American citizens, to take their place in the common task of the defense of the country and the ideals that are sacred to them.

There will be certain definite and specific places that will be opened to trained women. Those who are scientifically qualified in physics, chemistry and biology may be called upon for special work. In any case they are potential scientific laborers, whom the Government may rely on for definite work, either in government departments, military organizations, or in their own laboratories. The country is fortunate in having a group of college women so well equipped scientifically to be of service as needed. Many have capacities for leadership and will take their place on committees of various kinds, local, state or national. A notable illustration of a splendid service by a college woman has already been given by Harriet Elliott, who represents the consumers on the National Advisory Defense Council. She has done very essential work on this Council, and in addition has given very valuable guidance to other women who desire to be of service.

Should war come to this country, there will be the usual opportunities for services of mercy—nursing, Red-Cross work, and the preparation of supplies needed in the army, and there will be the function which women always have had of inspiring, encouraging, and comforting their men folk, as they are separated from home and are called upon to do actual military service.

Women have always been called upon to endure sacrifice cheerfully. When it comes to war, the character of their sacrifice is well known, but under present conditions even prior to war they may have to endure and make others understand the necessity for enduring various kinds of sacrifice.

Many women have individual incomes. Some have considerable resources of material character, and like other citizens they will have to bear the taxes that are necessary to maintain national defense. This they will do with cheerfulness and they will also create such public sentiment as will lead others cheerfully to accept the financial and material responsibilities involved in the protection of the liberties of our country.

No doubt in a Democracy there is need for what Mr. Willkie calls a "loyal opposition," always ready to point out the weak places in governmental programs and actions. But on the other hand in times of national crisis,

those in authority carry an extremely heavy burden, some of which it is difficult to share, and they need encouragement and strengthening on the part of their fellow citizens. Oftentimes they have information which determines their course of action, which in the very nature of the case cannot be paraded in the newspapers or made the subject of fireside chats. The Department of War, and of the Navy, the chiefs of staff of the various branches of defense service, the Secretary of State, and the President, as well as others in intimate contact with government, will have a body of information and be guided by a group of experts. These facts should make ordinary citizens extremely careful before increasing the burdens of those in authority by harsh criticism based only on rumor and suspected fact. The lamentable incident of a very great and patriotic man is a case in point. It will be recalled that the late Senator William E. Borah, Chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, declared, contrary to the advices of the President and the Secretary of State, that he had information there would be no war in Europe. Only a few months had gone by before the apprehension of officers of government, based on confidential reports of authorized representatives, was justified by the march of Hitler through Poland. Policies of government that have been adopted will need the support of individual college women, as well as of all intelligent citizens.

College women will inform themselves and will be centers of information on the historical background and the present status of national and international economic and social situations that enter into the national crisis. I am glad to say that women are very active in this field. I have recently observed one woman spending day and night studying books, papers, and magazines and delivering lectures to other women who were anxious to understand the international crisis. Here's a chance for women to learn their European history, to learn something about international problems, to ground themselves in the history of their own country and in the structure of its government, so that they may have a background of comprehension of current problems and plans as they develop from time to time.

College women are in a strategic position to help protect the country from the growth of totalitarian philosophy. They can stand firm for our traditional belief in the democratic faith and way in a world which regards such faith and way as old-fashioned. They are prepared to give an intelligent interpretation of democracy, needing not to ignore its faults and mistakes but needing certitude as to its great merits. They will help to protect us against any imitation of totalitarian methods, in order to secure short cuts to temporary end. They will see that as far as circumstances make possible, those rights guaranteed to Americans in our Bill of Rights are preserved; that the sacred privileges of Democracy laid down by our forefathers be not destroyed in our effort to protect ourselves against European systems which

would destroy them. We must not become totalitarian in order to overcome totalitarianism.

Again, college women will protect our social gains. They have participated in creating public sentiment that has made possible the protection of women and children and of the weak and defenseless; they have helped create the power that is responsible for the rise of the standard of living of the American people. They have rejoiced in better housing, better sanitary conditions, better protection of food, better provision for education, better care of the aged and needy, better care of the people's health, and better provision for the protection of our young people. They will be zealous to see that such social gains are not encroached upon by any spurious argument that such encroachment may be necessary for national defense. And they will have good grounds for their attitude, because they will know that the strength of a nation is in its total human resources. We must have well-fed, well-clothed, healthy, and wholesome people. War today is the total power of body, mind, and spirit against the total power of body, mind, and spirit of the antagonist.

Finally, it is particularly incumbent upon college women to protect our cultural life. The common testimony is that such life in Europe has come practically to a standstill on account of the war, and that it remains for this great country to preserve and develop the world's cultural heritage. Music, art, and literature must still be fostered; those who give their talent and time to such pursuits must have friends and patrons. It is from college women that we may expect the development of the largest influence in the support of maintaining at the highest possible point all aesthetic activities.

College women are called upon to help maintain morale and to strengthen all possible wholesome home, social, and religious influences. We shall increasingly need a sense of spiritual values. We shall need more than ever a belief in the power of prayer and to maintain our faith in the Divine supervision over the affairs of men, however dark at times the situation may be. We need increasingly to turn for support, strength, and comfort to our spiritual inheritance and to carry our problems and troubles to a Power higher than our own, who holds the destiny of nations in His hands, and to whom a thousand years is as one day, and a day as a thousand years.

College women have a great part to play in our national crisis. They are citizens with common opportunities and responsibilities; they are women with peculiar adaptability and inspiring genius; they are college women with added training and responsibilities, which their increased gifts throw upon them.

The Function of the College for Women*

By T. H. Napier
Dean, Alabama College for Women

Any discussion of the function of the college for women should take into account the purposes of women's education in this country, and should give some attention to the causes back of the woman's college movement.

More than a decade ago Professor Thomas Woody, of the University of Pennsylvania, issued the most complete work on the education of women that has ever come to my attention. In it he sets forth in the order of historical development the purposes of women's education. He says they are: "(1) preparation for home duties; (2) cultivation of formal gentility and grace for their social value through a variety of accomplishments; (3) discipline of the 'mental powers' so that women might be ready for any emergency in life; and (4) more specific preparation for a variety of professional opportunities. Concurrent with all except the last there has been (5) a constant emphasis on religious and Christian purpose."[1]

The educator of today may speak a different language but the purposes are about the same. Women want preparation for home-making, they seek a variety of accomplishments that will aid them in making social adjustments, they try to get a good liberal education while in college, and they are interested in special training for professional opportunities. The content and the method of meeting these needs may change from time to time, but the function of the woman's college has been and continues to be to serve these ends. Probably no group of institutions of equal numbers has been more sensitive to the varying needs in a changing social order.

In the early days women were barred from the colleges for men, and the movement in favor of their higher education necessarily resulted in the establishment of a number of colleges for women. Before the middle of the nineteenth century, however, co-education had made its appearance at Oberlin College in Ohio, and the state universities established after the middle of the century admitted women from the beginning. Separate colleges for women continued to be established to meet educational needs that were not met in other institutions at that time. This was especially true in the East and in the South.

In the early stages of women's education in this country the emphasis was upon preparation for home duties, upon the acquisition of the graces, and the types of culture that had characterized the finishing school, but with

* An address delivered over radio station WMC, Memphis, Tennessee, December 12, 1940, in connection with the Forty-fifth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

[1] Woody Thomas. *A History of Women's Education in the United States*, Vol. II, p. 192.

the beginning of co-education women's colleges began to duplicate the curricula of the men's colleges of the day. Women had not been admitted to the men's colleges, and they wanted to convince themselves and the general public of their ability to do the same things men were doing in college, and they wanted it understood that they could do these things just as well as the men had been doing them. After this period of controversy over the comparative ability of the sexes to do a good quality of college work, women were better able to follow their fundamental interests and to assume greater responsibility in determining their own sense of direction.

During the latter half of the nineteenth century the people of the South faced the problem of industrial and technical training for their women. This demand grew out of the industrial movement and the rise of the factory system. Women were leaving home to engage in some form of outside employment. Increasing numbers were becoming teachers, and many were entering commercial pursuits, and schools were necessary for their training.

Congress had passed the Morrill Land-Grant Act which resulted in the establishment of agricultural and mechanical colleges in most of the states. These institutions became the principal means of securing industrial and technical training. In some of the states these colleges were co-educational, but in the South most of them were closed to women. Business colleges sprang up, but these were patronized largely by men and men graduates were given preference in employment. The older women's colleges had their own programs which followed the conventional plan and were not ready for any such innovations. Women from the middle class among whom the demand was greatest were poor, and they turned to the state for assistance.

This movement resulted in the establishment of a new type of school, a type that had never been known in any country before, the state supported college for women. Such schools were established in seven Southern states and the border state of Oklahoma. The first one was established in Mississippi in 1884, and the last of this particular group was established in Oklahoma in 1909.

The charters of most of these colleges state that one of their purposes was to give technical and industrial training. This kind of training was considered so important, however, that in some instances the first legislation appears to have overlooked any other type of training. The acts establishing the state-supported college for women in Alabama provides a good illustration. The act states that the trust reposed in the board of trustees of this institution included:

"The establishment and maintenance of a first-class industrial school for the education of white girls of the state—in industrial and scientific branches, at which said girls may acquire a thorough normal school education, together with a knowledge of kindergarten instruction and music; also a knowledge of telegraphy, stenography, photography and phonography, type-writ-

ing, printing, bookkeeping, indoor carpentry, electrical construction, clay-modeling, architectural and mechanical drawing, sewing, dressmaking, millinery, cooking, laundry, house design, sign and fresco painting, home nursing, plumbing, and such other practical industries as, from time to time, to them may be suggested by experience or tend to promote the general object of said girls' industrial school, to wit: fitting and preparing such girls for the practical industries of the age."

This act was passed in 1893 and shows little evidence of interest in anything except industrial education. In a legislative session eight years later the purpose of the school was modified to include ". . . giving instruction in the liberal arts and sciences; English and literature. . . ." These changes in purpose did not satisfy, and a revised charter appeared in the code issued six years later. In the part of the revised charter which dealt with the purpose of the school greater emphasis is placed on the work in liberal arts and sciences and less on the industrial subjects. Provision was made for a professor in each of nine departments of work in liberal arts and sciences, and nine departments were to be maintained in the fine, practical, and industrial arts. In order that the trustees might have complete liberty in making necessary adjustments, the revised charter includes this paragraph:

"And the trustees shall, from time to time, establish and maintain departments wherein every other branch of human knowledge or industry by which woman may live shall be taught."

If this account indicates anything, it tends to show that the women's colleges have done pioneer work in the solution of woman's educational problems. They were established when women were excluded from colleges then in existence, and when educational needs arose that were not met in the colleges they could attend. There may be some advantage in segregating the sexes during the undergraduate period, and it may be possible for the woman's college to acquire a spirit and an atmosphere conducive to the development of the fine qualities of grace and charm so essential to the successful woman; but the real function of the woman's college of the future lies in the added opportunities to develop leadership qualities where the chief responsibilities are borne by women and in the curriculum advantages which the woman's college can develop and should offer. There is little justification of separate colleges for women if the lag between the needs of women and the programs provided are as great in them as they are in other institutions. This means that the needs and the opportunities of women today and tomorrow must receive constant attention, and that programs must be arranged that will meet these needs and prepare for these opportunities.

The woman's college must continue to do pioneer work, it must blaze new trails regardless of what other schools are doing. It must engage in research, but this research should turn the light of scientific inquiry upon the problems of the American home and upon the significant interests and

needs of women. Women spend approximately eighty per cent of our income, they determine very largely the social atmosphere in which our children are reared, they are the principal means of transmitting to future generations our culture and our way of life, and they must have a college program that will prepare them for these tasks. Large sums are provided each year for investigation in the field of agriculture, for the scientific study of businesses of all kinds, for research in the biological, the physical, and the social sciences. This work is necessary, for all of it is designed to advance the interests of society, but research centers where the problems of the home life of our people can be studied with the same scientific skill as that applied in other fields are just as important. Until these centers have been financed and established by some other agency, the college must do the best it can to meet the need. This is a fruitful field for the woman's college and some of them have already made progress in its development.

Such a program is stimulating, but it has its difficulties. A vital college program increases the cost and in most cases we are still forced to compete with the old established order on a dollar-and-cents basis. Better trained teachers, smaller sections, and more individual conferences mean a larger percentage of faculty members to students, which increase the per capita cost of instruction. We are told that a ratio of one faculty member to six or seven students is necessary for a fairly individualized education. The institutions of this area cannot afford such a luxury and must turn to some other plan for the present. A great deal can be accomplished by making better use of the faculty time available, but in order to do this the faculty must coöperate more fully than has been the custom. Much less time and attention can be given to the development of courses, departments, and divisions as such, and more to the development of the general program. Many courses that have been considered as prerequisites can be reduced to units of larger courses, and lectures can be limited to those that summarize the wide reading, the rich experience and the mature judgment of the lecturer.

In conclusion, it may be said that the function of the college for women is just what it has always been, it should give women an opportunity to get the kind of education they want and need in the positions they are going to fill. Women must still be prepared for home making; they will want the information, the experience, and the appreciations necessary for a comfortable adjustment to a changing social order; they have a right to expect adequate provision for a broad and liberal education so that they may be ready for life's emergencies; they need a higher type of special training for professional opportunities; and there must be an increased emphasis on religious and Christian purpose if our way of life is to survive.

Historical Section

This section continues the policy of the QUARTERLY in publishing as rapidly as possible sketches of member schools and colleges. Preference is given to schools whose membership dates back more than twenty years, because these schools—aside from the fact that their long membership identifies them for a longer period with Southern Association history—have usually been older schools with more of history to lose if an early record is not made. The QUARTERLY is glad, however, to have sketches of all member schools and to publish them as promptly as it can. In such articles *stress facts*, and take time to get them.—EDITOR.

North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, 1889-1939*

By DAVID A. LOCKMILLER

Assistant Professor of History, North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering

In North Carolina little was done before the Civil War towards offering college instruction in the fields of agriculture and mechanic arts. Although the State University had been established late in the eighteenth century to encourage "all useful learning," it was not until 1852 that the Board of Trustees established a school for the Application of Science to the Arts. The school, which offered the A.B. degree and emphasized the theories of the subjects studied, permitted the substitution of civil engineering and agricultural chemistry for languages and international law. The University did not claim that it was teaching practical agriculture and mechanic arts, and the course of study was limited indeed when contrasted to those of present day land-grant colleges.

Both theoretical and practical agriculture were emphasized in the State by Wake Forest Institute, now Wake Forest College, and Davidson Seminary, now Davidson College, which were established in the 1830's as manual-labor schools. The instruction in agriculture, however, was not recognized as higher learning, and both institutions abandoned the manual-labor plan after a few years because of practical difficulties.

* This article, excepting those paragraphs relating to the College's semi-centennial celebration in October, 1939, is based on Dr. Lockmiller's *History of the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina, 1889-1939* (Edwards & Broughton Company, Raleigh, 1939).

Following the Civil War, North Carolina through its General Assembly sought to avail itself of the bounty of the Federal Government by applying the provisions of the Morrill Act to the University at Chapel Hill. The effort failed. The original land-script fund was lost through mismanagement, and the University, becoming involved in Reconstruction politics and lacking public support, was forced to close in 1869. When instruction was resumed in 1875, the State replaced the land-script loss by giving the University interest-bearing certificates of indebtedness, but the $7,500 thus provided was not sufficient for the maintenance of real schools of agriculture and engineering. The failure of the reorganized University to provide shops, experimental laboratories, and test farms, and its use of the land-script fund for the teaching of theoretical subjects caused farm leaders and friends of industrial education throughout North Carolina to demand the establishment of a separate institution which would give effect to the Morrill Act.

State College, as it is popularly known, is the work of no one man or group of men. Like all institutions, it is a product of history. During the period of its inception and early struggles for life, however, certain leaders, no doubt inspired by some of the movements which ultimately merged into "Populism," stand out in bold relief. At the head of these was Colonel Leonidas L. Polk, North Carolina's first commissioner of agriculture and founder of *The Progressive Farmer*. While Polk was organizing the farmers and stressing the need for an agricultural college, members of the newly organized Watauga Club of Raleigh were urging the General Assembly to establish an industrial school in the State. This club was formed at the suggestion of William J. Peele and included such men as Walter H. Page, Charles D. McIver, Josephus Daniels, and Charles W. Dabney. At the insistence of the organized farmers and the Watauga Club the General Assembly, on March 3, 1887, chartered The North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts and provided for the transfer of the land-script fund from the State University to the new institution.

The A. and M. College was located on a tract in West Raleigh which had been donated by R. Stanhope Pullen. It was officially opened on October 3, 1889, with a teaching and administrative staff of nine and an enrollment of about fifty students. Those selected by the trustees to build the College and instruct and care for its students were: Colonel Alexander Q. Holladay, president; D. H. Hill, Jr., professor of English and bookkeeping; J. H. Kinley, professor of mathematics and practical mechanics; Joseph R. Chamberlain, professor of agriculture; W. F. Massey, professor of horticulture, arboriculture, and botany; W. A. Withers, professor of pure and agricultural chemistry; B. S. Skinner, superintendent of farms; J. N. Hubbard, steward; and Mrs. Sue C. Carroll, matron.

Meeting a real need in the State, backed by tireless workers and men of

vision, and directed by able trustees and a competent staff, the success of the College was assured. The first president, Alexander Quarles Holladay, was well qualified by temperament, education, and experience to administer the College during the first ten years of its history. He was born in Virginia in 1839, the son of Alexander R. Holladay, a distinguished lawyer of Richmond and a member of Congress. He was trained in the University of Virginia and the University of Berlin, specializing in Latin, Greek, modern languages, moral philosophy, and law. On the day that Virginia seceded from the Union he married Virginia Randolph Bolling, a beautiful and cultured woman, and on the same day he left to join the 19th Virginia Regiment as second lieutenant. During the War for Southern Independence he rose to be a colonel, and at its conclusion he was paroled at Greensboro, North Carolina, in 1865. After the war, he spent several years in farming and in the practice of law in Richmond, during which time he served in the Virginia Senate for four years. Soon, however, he entered the ranks of useful and successful teachers. He was president of the Stonewall Jackson Institute, Abingdon, Virginia, and professor of English and later president of the Florida Agricultural College, now merged into the University of Florida. Stately and polished in manner, disciplined by military service, cultivated by travel, and broadened by wide and thoughtful reading, Colonel Holladay represented the best of a Southern tradition in higher education.

During Holladay's term as president, the College experienced a slow but steady growth. The campus was enlarged and landscaped, eight buildings were erected, the Experiment Station was transferred from the State Department of Agriculture to the College, a working library was established, the curricula were increased and broadened, the faculty more than doubled, and the student enrollment increased to approximately 285. When Holladay was forced by ill health to relinquish the presidency on June 6, 1899, the "Cow College" was a going concern with its graduates already proving their worth on the farms and in the factories of the State.

On July 5, 1899, George Tayloe Winston, a native of North Carolina but then serving as president of the University of Texas, was invited by the Board of Trustees to accept the presidency of the A. and M. College. He accepted the opportunity to serve again his State and during the next nine years the institution profited greatly from his mature scholarship, administrative experience, and many educational and public contacts.

President Winston, the son of Patrick Henry Winston and Martha Byrd Winston, was born in Windsor, North Carolina, on October 12, 1852. He was educated in the Horner School, Oxford, North Carolina; the University of North Carolina, which he entered at thirteen; the United States Naval Academy, where he ranked first in his class; and at Cornell University, where he was awarded the Latin scholarship medal and elected a member of the Phi Beta Kappa Society. On the reorganization of the University

of North Carolina in 1875, he was, at the age of twenty-three, elected assistant professor of literature, and the following year he was promoted to the full professorship of Latin. After serving as a teacher for sixteen years, he was unanimously elected president of the University. He had served his Alma Mater as president for five years when, in 1896, he was called to accept the newly created office of president of the University of Texas. In addition to his teaching and administrative duties in Chapel Hill and Austin, Winston was active in various civic and educational organizations and movements. He was in great demand as a speaker and had won a national reputation as an educator when he arrived in Raleigh as Holladay's successor.

During Winston's administration departments of textile industry and chemical engineering were established, veterinary science was added to the curriculum in agriculture, short courses were offered in agriculture and engineering, and a summer school for teachers, both men and women, was instituted. The physical plant and the teaching staff were expanded to meet the demands of new subjects and a growing student body.

Shortly after the turn of the century student life was changed by the recognition of social fraternities, the employment of a full-time athletic director, the employment of a full-time Y. M. C. A. secretary, the establishment of student publications, and by the greater emphasis placed on military training. Campus life for both students and staff was also changed and improved when city water and gas mains and sewer lines were extended to the college buildings during the years 1906-08. The wells were abandoned, and fire and health hazards were reduced to a minimum.

In his work at State College, President Winston was repeating some of the successes which had characterized his administrations as president of the universities of North Carolina and Texas. A student of the classics, he was able to carry the cause of industrial education to the people and the legislature. He secured needed appropriations for new buildings and maintenance and his efforts reflect credit upon him and the institution he so ably served. Perhaps his administrative, teaching, and many semi-official duties were more than one man should have undertaken. Poor health soon impelled him to seek recreation through travel, and while in Europe in 1908, he was honored by being selected by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Education as an educator worthy of being retired with an annuity for life. President Winston, having already considered retirement and feeling that his work at the College was done, decided to accept the allowance made in recognition of his "unusual and distinguished" service to the cause of education in the South. On May 16, 1908, while in London, England, he wrote a formal letter of resignation to the Board of Trustees. His retirement was accepted with resolutions of regret and the leadership of the College was entrusted to Vice President D. H. Hill, Jr.

On July 23, 1908, the Board of Trustees met at the College to elect a new

president. There was considerable speculation concerning the outcome, as it was known that several candidates had applied for the position and there was a difference of opinion as to whether a member of the faculty should be promoted or an outsider selected to head the institution. After considering all candidates and the needs of the College, the board elected D. H. Hill as president and Professor W. C. Riddick as vice president.

Daniel Harvey Hill, the son of the Confederate General D. H. Hill and Isabella Morrison Hill, was born at Davidson College, North Carolina, January 15, 1859. He received his formal education at the North Carolina Military Institute in Charlotte, the Horner and Graves Academy in Hillsboro, and at Davidson College where he was awarded the Bachelor of Arts degree in 1880. In 1886, his Alma Mater conferred on him the Master of Arts degree and in 1905, in recognition of his successful teaching and literary activities, the same institution granted him the honorary degree of Doctor of Literature. In 1889, he was elected to the chair of English by the trustees of the newly organized A. and M. College in North Carolina.

From the time of his arrival in Raleigh until he became president, Professor Hill had served the College efficiently and faithfully. Under President Holladay he was professor of English and bookkeeping, secretary of the faculty, and bursar; and under President Winston he was vice president and acting president. He had grown with the college, and it is doubtful if anyone knew more of its history, problems, and inner workings than he. He was a successful teacher, a master in handling student troubles, and he, more than any other person, deserves credit for the building up of the college library. He was an active member of various educational organizations and the author of several successful school texts. His promotion to the presidency was truly earned and for the ensuing eight years the institution flourished under this small scholarly man who threw himself, heart, soul, and body, into the work of building a larger and better school to train the youth of the State.

Building in a physical, as well as in an educational, sense was the order of the day during Hill's administration. Each year new structures were either being planned and constructed or old ones were being repaired and enlarged. Among the new buildings were the Nineteen-Eleven Dormitory, named in honor of the class which abolished hazing; the Engineering Building, soon named Winston Hall in honor of President Winston; the Y.M.C.A. Building, a joint gift of John D. Rockefeller and friends of the institution; the dining hall; the power plant; and two large dairy barns. In addition to new buildings, the College's holdings were enlarged by the purchase of the Hicks and Rogers tract at the entrance of the campus and by the establishment of a poultry plant opposite the horticultural farm on Hillsboro Street. The equipment of the institution was expanded and improved dur-

ing this period by several substantial donations, the most notable being the gift of the physical laboratory of Dr. William Kearney Carr of Washington, D. C.

Between the years 1908 and 1916 several new courses of instruction were added and older courses were changed or dropped. Agronomy, soils, drainage, animal husbandry, poultry husbandry, and a normal course were added as new or expanded courses to the agricultural curricula. In engineering the mining work was dropped and a two-year course was provided in mechanic arts. The instruction and equipment in the civil, mechanical, electrical, and chemical engineering fields were improved. Work in the textile department was broadened to include a four-year dyeing course in addition to instruction in carding, spinning, weaving, and designing. Also, during Hill's administration such subjects as economics, agricultural economics, psychology, and public speaking, were introduced into the curricula. Special summer school courses were offered for teachers of agriculture, and graduate instruction continued to be offered to holders of the bachelor's degree.

Separate articles should be written on the growth and activities of the Agricultural Experiment Station and the Agricultural Extension Service. These divisions, as integral parts of the college and in coöperation with the United States Department of Agriculture and the State Department of Agriculture, have used the State as a laboratory and they have taken the knowledge of the classroom and the results of scientific investigations to farmers and housewives in all parts of North Carolina. The work of Professor C. B. Williams, Dean I. O. Schaub, Dr. Jane S. McKimmon, Dr. B. W. Kilgore, Professor T. E. Browne, and others is reflected in improved methods of farming and rural living conditions throughout the State.

As one would expect, the faculty of 1908 soon had to be enlarged to teach the new courses and to provide adequate instruction for a growing student body. President Hill selected the new instructors with care, and several of the ablest faculty members today joined the staff during his term of office. By May, 1916, the College had a resident enrollment of over 700 students, and the teaching and administrative staff, excluding Experiment Station and Extension Service workers, numbered approximately 75.

During Hill's term as president students were granted more privileges, the honor systen was established, and the literary societies and the Y. M. C. A. flourished. Football and baseball, however, were the leading extracurricular activities. During the school year 1910-11, basketball first came to State College through the influence of the Y. M. C. A. With the advent of the World War in Europe and trouble between the United States and Mexico, the military department played an increasingly important role in student life. The era was filled with events to be significant in the life of the College and the nation.

One memorable event came in 1914 when the A. and M. College cele-

brated its twenty-fifth anniversary. Three days, Octover 1-3, were set aside for speech-making, class reunions, receptions, dress parades, and athletic contests. A galaxy of State and Federal officials and educators visited the campus and paid tribute to the founders of the College and expressed confidence in its future. It was the belief of all that much had been done in twenty-five years and that the institution was now equipped to render even a greater service in the future.

Before accepting the presidency in 1908, Dr. Hill was widely and favorably known for his literary productions. In 1916 he was requested by the State Confederate Veterans Association to write the history of the North Carolina troops in the Civil War. Funds were made available through the Ricks Foundation to afford him reasonable compensation for the task and to insure the publication of the fruits of his labor. President Hill was reluctant to give up his long and pleasant connections with the College, but he felt that he should accept the offer as a duty and service which needed to be done. Accordingly, he tendered his resignation to the trustees to take effect on July 1, 1916. The D. H. Hill Library, the most beautiful building on the campus, was named in appreciation of his services.

The trustees selected Professor Wallace Carl Riddick, who had served as vice president since 1908, as the new president. A native of Wake County, North Carolina, he was the son of Wiley G. Riddick and Anna Jones Riddick. He received the A.B. degree from the University of North Carolina in 1885, the C.E. degree from Lehigh University in 1890, and prior to joining the staff of the A. and M. College as professor of mathematics and mechanics in 1892, he had practiced his profession as a civil engineer.

In attempting to survey Riddick's administration from 1916 to 1923, certain events stand out to make this period the most memorable in the span of fifty years. In support of this statement we need only to mention the change of the institution's name from the North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts to the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, the World War and the coming of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps and the Student Army Training Corps, the founding of the *Alumni News*, the influenza epidemic of 1918, the drive for the Memorial Tower, the creation of the departments of architecture, education, highway engineering, and business administration, the election of a dean of agriculture and a dean of students, the athletic teams coached by William Fetzer, Harry Hartsell, and Tal H. Stafford, the fire in the shop building, the million dollar building program of the early 1920's, the founding of *The Technician*, the institution of student government, the organization of the Faculty Research Club, and the report of George F. Zook which led to the reorganization of the College into schools and divisions. The Riddick era was filled with heroism, sadness, growing pains, readjustments, and edu-

cational progress. It marked the transition of the school from a small college to a full fledged land-grant institution.

During the World War the College was virtually commandeered by the Federal Government. Student drills were held five afternoons a week, and the shops, laboratories, and teaching personnel were utilized in the training of various draft detachments. Numerous students and several members of the faculty volunteered their services to the country in its hour of need. The role of the alumni in the World War is one to which anyone can point with pride. The record of approximately 1,400 State College men in service, not including some 593 who were enlisted in the S. A. T. C., is as follows: colonels, 1; lieutenant colonels, 3; majors, 14; captains, 52; first lieutenants, 94; second lieutenants, 173; sergeants, 82; corporals, 43; privates, 703; naval officers, 30; sailors, 146; and marine corps, 12. Fifteen of these men were cited for bravery, many were wounded, and 33 made the supreme sacrifice.

When Dr. Riddick retired as president in 1923 to become dean of the newly organized School of Engineering, he could state with pride and conviction that the educational objectives and standards of the College, despite the abnormal conditions produced by the war, had been raised. In addition to the new courses of study mentioned above, these items of growth should be listed: the entrance requirements were increased to fifteen credits, the requirements for all degrees were made more exacting, summer school work was resumed, the faculty was enlarged and better paid, and the institution was granted an "A" rating by the State Department of Public Instruction.

When the Board of Trustees announced the resignation of Dr. Riddick on May 28, 1923, it stated that the presidency would be tendered to Dr. E. C. Brooks, State Superintendent of Public Instructions. On June 9, 1923, Dr. Brooks having indicated that he would accept the office, the trustees formally elected him as the fifth president of State College, and he entered upon his duties July first.

Eugene Clyde Brooks, the son of Edward Jones and Martha Eleanor Brooks, was born in Greene County, North Carolina, December 3, 1871. He attended Bethel Academy in Lenoir County and in 1890 entered Trinity College. Following his graduation from the latter institution in 1894 with the degree of Bachelor of Arts, he engaged in newspaper work. He entered the educational field in 1900, serving as principal of the Kinston High School and afterwards as superintendent of the Monroe schools. In 1902, the Southern Education Board began an intensive campaign against illiteracy and the lack of educational advantages in North Carolina and other Southern states. The work in North Carolina was directed by Governor Charles B. Aycock, Dr. Charles D. McIver, and Dr. J. Y. Joyner. These men selected Professor Brooks to manage the campaign with headquarters in the office of the State

Superintendent of Public Instruction. He began his duties in the summer of 1902, returning to Monroe for that school year, but resigning his office in 1903 to give full time to the drive for better schools, longer terms, better teachers, and improved rural libraries. In 1904 he became superintendent of the Goldsboro schools and remained there until 1907, when he was named professor of education in Trinity College. In 1919 he was appointed State Superintendent of Public Instruction. In 1906, Professor Brooks founded the popular teacher's magazine, *North Carolina Education*, and for seventeen years he was a contributing editor of this journal. He was active as an author and lecturer, and served as president of the State Teachers' Assembly, 1912-13, and as state director of the National Education Association.

Upon taking office, President Brooks launched a broad program of reorganization along the lines recommended in the Zook Report. The steps required to be taken as outlined by him were: (a) to build a separate School of Agriculture by uniting agricultural instruction, the Agricultural Experiment Station, and the Agricultural Extension Service into a coördinated unit; (b) to broaden the Engineering School, raise its professional standing, and add new departments to meet the growing needs of the State; (c) to aid manufacturing by providing scientific instruction in those processes which convert raw materials into finished products; (d) to improve and broaden the supporting subjects such as science, social science, vocational education, and the humanities; (e) to raise the scholastic standing of the College so that it might take equal rank with other academic and technological institutions of the country; and (f) to provide better equipment including buildings and laboratories, to raise the scholastic standing of the faculty, to improve the library, and to broaden the culture of the students and improve their health through a thorough physical education program.

It was a large order, but with the support of the State and the coöperation of the faculty the main features of the six-point program were achieved before 1930. A graduate school and schools of Agriculture, Engineering, and Science and Business were organized in 1923. The following year the Textile School was organized, and in 1927 the School of Education was established. The College Extension Division, the Summer School, and the Agriculture Extension Service were placed under directors who were responsible to the president. The dean of the School of Agriculture also served as director of the Agricultural Experiment Station. The courses of study existing in 1923 were improved by the addition of new courses, new faculty members, and modern facilities and equipment. A division of forestry was established in the School of Agriculture; departments of construction engineering, ceramic engineering, mining engineering, sanitary engiing, aeronautical engineering, and an engineering experiment station were set up in the School of Engineering; and the School of Education added courses in psychology, vocational education, and physical education. Grad-

uate instruction was offered by the major departments, and research projects in agricultural economics and rural and urban sociology were directed by the Bureau of Economic and Social Research.

Other improvements of the Brooks administration include The D. H. Hill Library, Polk Hall, The Frank Thompson Gymnasium, the President's Home, Daniels Hall, Peele Hall, the new dairy and poultry plants, and several forestry farms. Also, the Student Loan Fund was established and new scholarships were made available, scholarship day was inaugurated, a program of physical education and intramural sports was instituted, and in 1929 the College was elected to membership in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as a fully accredited institution. These accomplishments demonstrate the ability of President Brooks as an administrator and show his genuine passion for the cause of education. His administration built solidly during the prosperous 1920's and successfully weathered the erosions of panic conditions in the early 1930's.

In 1931, the General Assembly, in an effort to prevent duplications and to promote economy and efficiency in the three leading state institutions of higher learning, consolidated and merged the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, the North Carolina College for Women, and the University of North Carolina into the University of North Carolina. The act did not destroy the identity of State College or impair its functions in any way as a technological institution. It did result in certain administrative changes, and it eliminated the School of Science and Business at the Raleigh unit and transferred the School of Engineering from Chapel Hill to State College. The process of consolidation has necessarily been slow, and it is not yet complete. Although it met with considerable opposition at the time, the establishment of a greater University of North Carolina has already benefitted the institutions concerned and the State which they were founded to serve.

On November 14, 1932, Dr. Frank P. Graham, president of the University of North Carolina, was elected president of the consolidated University, and Dr. Brooks was elected to continue his duties as chief administrator of State College with the title of vice president. In 1934, after eleven years of service to the College, Dr. Brooks was forced by ill health to request that he be relieved of his executive duties. The trustees granted this request and in recognition of his abilities and services he was elected president emeritus and research professor of education. With the resignation of Dr. Brooks, the office of vice president was abolished and the title of the executive of the College was changed to dean of administration.

It is perhaps too early, and the length of this article will not permit any detailed discussion of the administration of President Graham and Colonel John W. Harrelson, who became dean of administration in 1934. Both of these men have coöperated with the trustees to work out the problems of

consolidation and to build a better State College within the framework of the enlarged University. A few of their many accomplishments will appear in the following summary of the College's first half century.

Fifty years is a very short time in the life of an institution like the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina, but in the accomplishments of the past five decades are found certain foundations and trends which will chart the course of growth for many years to come. A State once reluctant to support agricultural and industrial education is now definitely committed to a policy of providing higher education for the sons and daughters of the common citizen in practically all vocations of life. People who once thought higher education was for the few who desired to enter the so-called learned professions now take colleges for granted and demand that they shall open their doors to all qualified students. Private and denominational institutions which were once opposed to State and Federal aid to public colleges and universities are now reconciled to such support and are coöperating with these institutions in presenting a united educational front. To a large degree the growth of State College is an index to the growth of the country and the changed and broadened viewpoints of our people from 1889 to 1939.

During its first fifty years the College's real estate holdings, not including forestry farms and test farms, increased from 61 acres to 1,766 acres; its permanent buildings expanded from one to 39; its faculty and administrative staff, not including agricultural experiment and extension workers, grew from nine to 330; the resident annual student enrollment increased from 72 to over 2,500; and the College which was once in the country became a part of the City of Raleigh. During the same period the value of the college plant has grown from approximately $30,000 to $7,000,000; the annual budget for all purposes, including student fees and State and Federal grants, has increased from approximately $30,000 to $2,900,000; the alumni, entirely lacking at first (!), now number some 20,000; the two major vocations of 1889 have been increased to 36; the handful of books in the library has grown to more than 65,000 volumes; and the institution has grown from an unknown quantity to a position of influence and leadership in the educational world.

Today members of the faculty hold degrees from educational institutions in practically every state of the Union and from several foreign universities. A majority of these men have had practical as well as theoretical training in their fields of specialization. The staff contains twenty-eight members who have served the institution for more than twenty-five years each, with a total service of 894 years. The curricula of the various schools include approximately one thousand courses, which may be classified as theoretical, practical, specialized, and general; and the classrooms, shops, laboratories, greenhouses, experiment stations, and farms are furnished with the most

approved equipment. In brief, the College is prepared to give thorough and fully accredited instruction in agriculture, forestry, engineering, textiles, vocational education, and military science and tactics. The Basic Division of the College offers two years of basic courses in the humanities, natural and exact sciences, and the social sciences as a foundation for the technological and vocational curricula of the several schools, and cultural electives in those fields for advanced students.

Most of the graduates of the College have been natives of North Carolina, and the majority of these have remained within the State. This fact may explain, in part at least, some of the agricultural and industrial progress North Carolina has made during the past fifty years. Those graduates who did not remain in North Carolina are widely scattered throughout the Union, and several are following their professions in foreign countries. Twentieth century civilization has increased the demands for technically trained men, and today virtually all graduates are employed within thirty days after commencement in their specialized fields.

On October 3, 1939, State College celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its opening. Several members of the first freshman class, members of the faculty, students, trustees, state officials, representatives of the colleges of North Carolina, and many other friends of the institution attended the formal services held in Pullen Hall. Greetings were extended for the State of North Carolina by Governor Clyde R. Hoey, for the State Department of Public Instruction by Dr. Clyde A. Erwin, for the North Carolina College Conference by Dr. William C. Pressly, and for the private and denominational colleges of the State by Dr. Thurman D. Kitchin. Dr. William P. Few of Duke University made a short talk on "Institutional Coöperation," and the principal address of the day was made by former Governor O. Max Gardner, an alumnus of the Class of 1903.

In his address Governor Gardner reviewed the history of the College from the days of Polk and Page to the present. Intimately associated with the school since his student days, his talk was interspersed with humor and observations on educators and educational policies of the older generation. He discussed at some length the consolidation of State College, the North Carolina College for Women, and the State University into the University of North Carolina, a step which has attracted the attention of educational administrators throughout the nation and one which may rank as the most important act of his administration as governor. He closed with a plea that the College rededicate itself to the service of the American ideal of Democracy.

The program was appropriately closed when State College through President Frank P. Graham conferred upon Dr. Wallace C. Riddick, the "Grand Old Man" of the College, the honorary degree of Doctor of Engineering. Professor Riddick joined the faculty in 1892 and has served the institution

as teacher, vice president, president, dean of the School of Engineering, and he is now active as dean emeritus and professor of hydraulics. His life for the past forty-eight years has been so intimately and vitally connected with the College that his personal history and the history of the institution are almost one and the same. His varied and continuous record of service to education is one that few persons can equal.

Other features of the semi-centennial celebration included a luncheon at the Carolina Country Club honoring the representatives of the nineteen senior colleges and the twelve junior colleges of the State who were present, and a reception at the home of Dean and Mrs. John W. Harrelson sponsored by the State College Woman's Club. The day was one of good cheer. As it drew to a close there were some, perhaps, who looked to the achievements of the past, but most of those present were thinking of centennials to come.

The University of Mississippi

By Alfred Hume
Chancellor Emeritus, University of Mississippi

The University of Mississippi, like the other state universities in all the states of the Union except the original thirteen, owes its origin to the policy adopted by the Continental Congress in the ordinance which became law July 13, 1787, and which was enacted for the government of the Northwest Territory. Its provisions were afterwards extended in general to all of the public domain. This ordinance declared in reference to education in the region to which it applied that "religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

In pursuance of this policy, the State of Mississippi, when organized, received from the Federal Government the equivalent of one section in every township of land for common schools, and by the act of February 20, 1819, received one township of land for the support of a seminary of learning, or state university. This act of Congress was intended to grant two townships of land to the State. The deficiency in the amount actually received was ignored or forgotten from 1819 to 1892. In 1892 the attention of the Board of Trustees was called to the matter by the Chancellor of the University, and authority was given him in 1893 to undertake to secure the grant needed to make up the deficiency.

A memorial was duly presented to Congress clearly showing the existence of a deficiency and explaining the manner in which it occurred, urging that the grant made to the State for the University be increased from one township to four townships of land, four townships being the largest amount given to any state for this purpose. The result was the granting to the State of another township of land for the University by an Act of June 20, 1894.

The lands embraced in the original township granted in 1819 were leased, in part, from 1829 to 1833. In 1831 the legislature directed that the lands be sold. Thirty-five and one-half sections were sold in the manner prescribed by the legislature, about the year 1833, for the sum of $277,332.52. The act of the legislature of February 20, 1840, appropriated all the proceeds of the sale of the seminary lands "for the use and benefit of the University of the State of Mississippi," and on the same day the legislature provided for the location of the University, which had not yet been established. Upon the report of commissioners appointed under this act, the present location in Lafayette County was fixed by the legislature by a majority of one vote. On the 24th of February, 1844, the University of Mississippi was duly chartered by the legislature, and its first board of trustees named.

This body was composed of men who ranked among the most distinguished citizens of the State. Among these, Hon. James Alexander Ventress has the distinction of being the author of the bill which became a law in 1844 organizing the University. He received his education in the common schools of Wilkinson County, Mississippi, at the University of Edinburgh, the Academie de Paris, and the University of Berlin. He was a brilliant scholar and writer. While in Berlin he was the German correspondent and assistant editor of the Revue de Deux Mondes. To the organization, equipment, and maintenance of the University of Mississippi he devoted his talents and his large political influence as a member of the legislature and Speaker of the House of Representatives. He was continuously a member of the Board of Trustees from 1844 until his death in 1867. An even longer period, twenty-six years, was covered by the valuable services of another member of the first board, Judge James M. Howry. From 1844 to 1870 this devoted friend of the University gave freely of his time and talents in untiring efforts to advance the interests of the institution. During the greater part of this time he discharged with eminent ability and conspicuous fidelity the duties of the combined offices of secretary and treasurer. It was Judge Howry who successfully led the forces favoring the introduction of the "Evidences of Christianity" into the curriculum and establishing the University on a basis distinctly Christian.

The first meeting of the Board of Trustees was held in the capital of the State, January 15, 1845, at which time an organization was effected. Under the original charter, the board was a self-perpetuating corporation consisting of thirteen members. In 1857, by an act of the legislature, the Governor became *ex-officio* a member and president of the board. Since the Civil War, vacancies have been filled by the Governor's appointment. An act of the legislature of 1870 states that such appointments are to be made with the advice and consent of the Senate. In 1876, the number of trustees was increased to fifteen.

The second regular meeting of the Board of Trustees was held in Oxford, July 14, 1845. The Board accepted two half sections of land lying immediately west of the town of Oxford, the south half of section 20, and the north half of section 29, township 8, range 3 W., which had been purchased by citizens of Oxford and Lafayette County, and donated to the State for the location of the University. At this meeting of the Board of Trustees, preliminaries were arranged for the erection of buildings. In July, 1848, the election of the first faculty was held, and November 6, 1848, the first session opened with a faculty of four members and about fifty students present. From its opening until 1880 the University was maintained by annual appropriations made by the legislature. In 1856, a special appropriation of $100,000, to be paid in five annual installments, was made by the legislature, and with the aid of this the University made its first large growth in

facilities and equipment and speedily took rank as one of the best equipped institutions in the country.

In the spring of 1861 the excitement due to political events seriously interrupted the work of the University. Many students withdrew before the close of the session in order to enlist in the Confederate army. A company of students, which has become historic, was organized on the campus under the title "University Greys." It is stated on excellent authority that in the battle of Gettysburg every member of this company was either killed or wounded and that some of these gallant boys got further North than did any other Confederate soldiers.

Little wonder that the athletic teams of the University are now known as the "Rebels" and that the institution itself is affectionately called "Ole Miss," this term of endearment relating to Mississippi womanhood of the old plantation days before the Civil War. In its application today, not the State, but the University, is meant. The phrase, "Ole Miss," dates to the far distant past. Its close association with the University originated in 1897 when the first annual was published and its editors adopted the name "Ole Miss." Since then the use of the term as synonymous with the University of Mississippi has met with ever increasing popular favor, being both a reminder of worthy traditions and an inspiration for all who still reverence ideals.

It is probable that four-fifths of all the young men whose names appear on the rolls as students of the University from its organization up to the beginning of the civil war enlisted in the Confederate service. A very large proportion, much larger than the average of Confederate soldiers, sacrificed their lives in the service of the State. During the ante-bellum period eleven classes were graduated from the University, the first in 1851, with a total of two hundred and ninety-six graduates. Of these, forty-six were "honor men," and the records show that more than half of this number saw active service in the Army of the Confederacy.

Owing to the existing Civil War, only four students appeared for matriculation in the fall of 1861. The faculty resigned, and exercises were suspended until the fall of 1865. The Board of Trustees appointed Professors A. J. Quinche and Burton H. Harrison as custodians of the buildings and other property of the University. Professor Quinche remained in charge during the period of the Civil War and succeeded in preserving intact the property intrusted to his care. Professor Harrison resigned his place at the University and served as secretary to the President of the Confederate States.

During the War the buildings of the University were occupied sometimes by Confederate and sometimes by Federal soldiery. Soon after the battle of Shiloh they were used for hospital purposes, and gave their shelter to some 1,500 sick and wounded Confederate soldiers. More than 700 of these sleep in a cemetery near the University campus on University ground.

Immediately after the Civil War the halls of the University were filled

with a class of students never before seen in any American college. They were the sons of parents who had been wealthy but whose wealth had been entirely swept away by the Civil War. Perhaps half of these young men had served in the Confederate Army. With such preparation for college as these circumstances suggest, they came with possibly as little of scholastic attainments as those students who entered in 1848; but they came with a determination born of necessity. The efforts put forth and the influence felt while here resulted in the development of a type of manly character and power which cannot be equalled by the records of any other American college. A study of the lifework of this group of students fully verifies this strong statement as fact.

It was during these trying days of "reconstruction" when the institution was for several years in great straits that the Chancellor of the University, in an "Open Letter" of September, 1870, stated that he and his colleagues would resign before they would matriculate Negro students. This, combined with other forces, "saved the University." Those who understand Southern people will not be surprised when told that this is the same institution that befriends the Negro, "Blind Jim," and welcomes him as part of its life. For more than forty years this colorful campus character, self-styled "Dean of Freshmen," has been vending peanuts, apples, candy, and chewing gum. Frequently students lead him at dangerous crossings and now and then a faculty member takes him in his car to his humble home in Oxford. Today, by University authorities and by universal approval, he is given a comfortable and convenient place for the sale of his wares—during the winter in the halls of the Lyceum, and during the summer near the front steps of this, the oldest and most historic of the University buildings. The boys of "Ole Miss" would fight for him.

Throughout all its history, the University, as with similar institutions generally, has had an atmosphere, a spirit, a life, all its own. It has ever been, and it is today, not so much a factory as it is a field, and not so much a field as it is a force. It is not a place where machinery works with dead material, turning out lifeless forms as paying products, but rather a place where living beings are in process of growth and development, where mental and moral forces are moulding character and shaping destinies both of individuals and states.

Dating from the opening in 1848, the oldest division of the University as at present organized is the College of Liberal Arts, formerly known as the Department of Literature, Science and Art, or the Academic Department. During the early years of its history it was the University and, for more than half a century from its establishment in 1848, it stood alone, save for the Law Department founded in 1854. From it, as a center, radiate influences that vitally and powerfully affect the professional schools now associated with it and, both directly and indirectly, the welfare of the entire State from

which it draws its students and into which it sends its graduates. It is the heart of the institution, and its pulse-beat is felt throughout every member, imparting larger life and lasting vigor. This source of energy and vitality must be kept strong and unimpaired. Or, to change the figure, the foundation must be secure, laid broad and deep, that the superstructure may be builded with reasonable prospect of permanence and stability.

The professional schools are quick to acknowledge their indebtedness to the College and their dependence upon it for much of their best material, the superior quality of their own products being due, in large measure, to the training received in the older Departments of the Arts and Sciences.

In fitting men and women for lives of useful service as lawyers, doctors, engineers, teachers, pharmacists, merchants, or what not, the University does not forget that these workers in the various fields of human endeavor are not only better prepared for their professional studies by courses in the College of Liberal Arts, but also that they are thus far more adequately equipped for their life-work as they mingle with their fellow men. The curriculum of the College is intended to broaden sympathies, widen horizons, deepen the foundations of character, strengthen manhood and womanhood —in a word, to furnish and equip for intelligent and contented citizenship. It seeks to develop the ability to think clearly, honestly, connectedly, logically, deeply, and through its thinkers, to handle the industrial, social, political, and religious problems which have to do with good citizenship. It would thus fit young men and women for safe and wise leadership in whatever communities their lots may be cast, and in this way it would make its contribution to the State and Nation.

The College ever seeks to keep alive the truth that the hidden, the invisible, the silent, the spiritual, forces ultimately and surely shape and determine things visible and material. It teaches, as does all experience as well, that applied science must wait upon pure science; that the chemical, physical, and biological laboratories must laboriously train students in principles and processes if they are to use these successfully in professional studies or in practice; that strong courses in pure mathematics must form the back-bone of any first-class course in engineering; that some knowledge of the history and language of other peoples not only gives one a broader and more sympathetic outlook, a truer insight into the past, but enables him more correctly to interpret the present and to penetrate the future; that the study of mental, moral, economic, and political sciences, philosophy, and literature, is a potent factor in moulding men with ideas and ideals, of making patriotic citizens and constructive statesmen.

Such are some of the aims of the College of Liberal Arts. The State will always need men with the kind of training which the University supplies, and the College of Arts and Sciences will, to a very great extent, determine the tone, color, character, and individuality of the University as a whole.

Accordingly, it is confidently believed that the University's College of Liberal Arts is one of the State's greatest servants in building up and perpetuating all that is really worth while. Its province is to lead rather than to follow, and to serve rather than to rule. But in order to serve best, it must be most free—free to expand, to develop, to grow, to see visions, to breathe a clear, pure atmosphere, freed from the suffocating smoke of commercialism, and to live a life which, while in close and sympathetic touch with every interest of the State, is yet untouched by the mercenary spirit of the utilitarian extremist. Unhampered thus, it will prove more and more an invaluable power for the amelioration of unhappy conditions and a mighty force for the uplifting of all people.

By the act of March 5, 1880, the legislature of the State adjusted the indebtedness of the State to the University on account of the sale of the first township of land granted by Congress, said indebtedness being declared to be the sum of $544,061.22, on which sum interest at six per cent is paid. To this period belongs the great controversy of 1887 on the Endowment Act of 1880. In this discussion the Chancellor of the University made such a masterly argument that the settlement of the question at issue has remained unshaken.

In the autumn of 1882, the doors of the University were opened to women upon the same terms and conditions as to men. The attendance of women has continually increased, until for the current session there are enrolled 437 women out of a grand total of 1,473 students.

In 1892 preparatory courses in the University were discontinued. This forward step was a piece of pioneering in Mississippi, antedating by three years the organization of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States.

The reasonably high standard of admission to the University has proved a great help to the secondary schools all over the State. By getting out of their way and declining to occupy the territory properly belonging to them, the University has offered opportunity and incentive for the building up of first-class local high schools. Hundreds of communities have thus received a blessing, the presence of a genuine high school stimulating social and intellectual life in the highest degree. The plan benefits the University also, for thereby it is enabled to cultivate more effectively its own field which is distinct from that of the high school. Again, that large majority of boys and girls who can never go far from home for higher educational advantages are most vitally concerned with this matter. But for the policy pursued by the University in having no preparatory department and in maintaining a high standard for admission, there would be relatively few communities in the State maintaining first class high schools. Under the protection which this policy has afforded, many schools have broadened their work, thus enlarging and enriching the courses which are open to the thousands who

never go to college. The history of educational development in Mississippi, as elsewhere, shows that in general the institutions of higher learning provide the forces which elevate the standards of the lower schools. It is the University pulling more than the schools pushing that has lifted both to higher planes of service and usefulness. The hearty coöperation between the schools and the University and the appreciation which each has for the other's work promise greater and better things to come. The claim is confidently, definitely, and positively made, that the University has served the best interests of the entire State by its early efforts to raise the standards of high school education. All classes and conditions have derived benefit in the way of vastly improved schools which might have been very slow in coming with a preparatory department at the University and a low standard of admission there. Today there are hundreds of schools in the State affiliated with the University and able to prepare students for freshman classes.

The University has carefully avoided every extreme in administering its system of entrance requirements. The position which it occupies on this question is a safe and sane middle-ground. As progress has been made in developing and standardizing the new subjects which have been introduced into the high school, the University has recognized their value and has agreed to accept them as meeting in part its entrance requirements.

In the fall of 1892, the Chancellor and faculty of the University began arranging for summer schools. The following summer this work was inaugurated and has been repeated every summer with a few exceptions, and with ever increasing thoroughness and enlargement of the courses offered.

The authorities of the University are interested in every means tending to stimulate any to seek a higher education. They fully realize the responsibilities that attach to the University as the head of the educational system of the State, and while continually improving and urging the importance of the work in its established curriculum during the regular session, they desire to extend in every practicable way the influence and stimulus that may come from contact with the forces of education provided at the University. The 1940 summer session enrolled 475 students. The Extension Division of the University gave correspondence courses to 130 students during the session 1939-40.

The campus of the University of Mississippi, comprising one square mile of rolling land at an altitude of five hundred feet, is noted for its healthfulness and natural beauty. The land, buildings, and equipment, concentrated on eighty acres of the campus, are valued at more than $4,600,000. In addition to fourteen administration and classroom buildings, five dormitories for women and fourteen for men, there are auxiliary buildings and facilities including power house, libraries, Robert Burwell Fulton Chapel, cafeteria, gymnasium, stadium and field house, armory, laundry, student union building, swimming pool, golf course and athletic fields.

The University owns also forty-one residences and an eight-unit apartment house, occupied mainly by administrative officers and faculty members; and nine cottages, occupied by married students. Twenty fraternity and sorority houses, owned by local chapters, have recently been built on the campus. The State of Mississippi holds in trust for the University 23,040 acres of land in Harrison and Jackson counties, a grant by the Congress of the United States in 1894 for the benefit of the University of Mississippi. The combined libraries of the University contain more than 100,000 volumes. The General Education Board, the Carnegie Corporation, and friends of the University have recently contributed $75,000 for the purchase of books and periodicals.

The University comprehends the following divisions in the order of their separate establishment: College of Liberal Arts (1848), School of Law (1854), School of Engineering (1900), School of Education (1903), School of Medicine (1903), School of Pharmacy (1908), School of Commerce and Business Administration (1917), Graduate School (1927). The Extension Department was established in 1926. The Department of Music and the Department of Military Science and Tactics are recently established departments in the University.

The University of Mississippi is a charter member of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. It is a member of the Association of American Colleges, and is on the accepted list of the Association of American Universities. It was a former Chancellor of the University of Mississippi, Dr. Robert B. Fulton, who, in 1895, issued the call which resulted in the organization of the National Association of State Universities. Dr. Fulton was, for five successive years, elected President of this Association.

The Law School is a member of the Association of American Law Schools, and is approved by the Council on Legal Education of the American Bar Association; the Engineering School is accredited by the national body of the American Society of Civil Engineers; the School of Medicine is a member of the Association of American Medical Colleges and is on the approved list of the American Medical Association. The School of Pharmacy is a member of the American Association of Colleges of Pharmacy and is accredited by the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education. The other professional schools have similar standing.

The University has advanced steadily during the century of its existence. New courses, departments, and schools have been introduced, with the result that it offers a high order of instruction in the major fields of human knowledge. Appropriations in conformity with expansion have been made from time to time by the legislature for permanent improvements, including that of 1928 in the sum of $1,600,000. Since the fall of 1935, fifty-three new

building projects have been completed at a cost of approximately $1,400,000, one-half of which has been appropriated by the Federal Government.

It would be unpardonable were there no express mention made of some exceptionally able men who served the University during the earlier periods of its history. The annals of the early era of the University of Mississippi make remarkably good reading. There were giants in those days, men of massive minds. One of these was Dr. John Millington, an Englishman, who was a member of the first faculty in 1848. He had worked in the Royal Institution of London under Michael Faraday and Sir Humphrey Davy, pioneers in the field of electrical science. He brought with him a considerable supply of physical and chemical apparatus much of which was of the same kind and, possibly, the identical patterns used by Faraday and Davy. Some pieces of this interesting apparatus may yet be seen in the physics laboratory of the University. He was author of a treatise on mechanics and also of one on civil engineering. What a story he could tell of the scientific dawn! How deeply are the later wizards of electricity indebted to him and to his kind! Millington was professor of chemistry and natural philosophy in the College of William and Mary, Virginia, before accepting the same chair in the University of Mississippi in 1848.

Even further back in the history of the University was Dr. John Newton Waddel. Just three more years and a full century will have gone by since he was a charter member of the Board of Trustees. Before the railroad came through, he traveled two hundred miles on horseback to attend a meeting of the Board. What would he think of a modern highway and the Oxford airport? Following long years of distinguished service to the University as, successively, trustee, professor, and chancellor, he became the first president of Southwestern Presbyterian University, Clarksville, Tennessee, now a college of liberal arts of the highest order, known as Southwestern in Memphis.

Another member of the first faculty was Albert Taylor Bledsoe who was elected professor of mathematics and astronomy in the University of Mississippi in 1848, there being about fifty candidates for this position. He resigned in 1854 and became professor of mathematics in the University of Virginia, continuing there until 1861. He served as Assistant Secretary of War of the Confederate States, and after the war resided in Baltimore as editor of the *Southern Review*.

While Bledsoe was a profound mathematician, he was even more a theologian and philosopher. His writings fully justify this statement. As early as 1845 he published a work entitled "An Examination of President Edwards on the Will." About ten years later his "Theodicy, or Vindication of the Divine Glory" was published. His "Philosophy of Mathematics" is of special interest to the student of the calculus.

It was during Professor Bledsoe's incumbency of the chair of mathematics

that L. Q. C. Lamar was Adjunct-Professor of Mathematics. Seldom have two such massive and brilliant intellects been so closely associated in the same work. Lamar taught in other departments later, being Professor of Metaphysics and Ethics, 1860-61 and 1866-67, and Professor of Governmental Science and Law, 1867-70. His services as a United States Senator, as a member of Cleveland's Cabinet, and as a member of the Supreme Court were outstanding.

It has been said that the University of Mississippi links the names of Longstreet and Lamar. Augustus Baldwin Longstreet was President of the University from 1849 to 1856. He was a graduate of Yale. Before coming to Mississippi, he had been president of Emory College, Georgia, and later of Centenary College, Louisiana. From 1857 to 1859 he was president of the University of South Carolina. As author of "Georgia Scenes," he has a place in Southern literature. He was distinguished as lawyer, orator, and preacher. "He as president, his son-in-law, L. Q. C. Lamar, as professor, and Edward Mayes, son-in-law of Lamar, as Chancellor, have largely shaped the destiny of the University."

Then there was Dr. Frederick A. P. Barnard, a man of extraordinary brilliance, a star of the first magnitude, professor of physics and astronomy and president for some years immediately preceding the Civil War. It was during his presidency that the largest telescope in the world at that time was made for the University of Mississippi observatory. This was the period when, according to a most competent and trustworthy authority, the equipment of the physics laboratory of the University was not surpassed, if indeed equalled, anywhere else in North America. When the University closed its doors for the four years of the Civil War, Barnard became president of Columbia College, New York, and made it Columbia University.

Record should be made of another name, that of Eugene W. Hilgard, who after serving Mississippi for some years as state geologist became in 1868 professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology in the University, filling that chair with eminent success until called to the University of Michigan. Shortly thereafter he accepted a professorship in the University of California. It was in 1860 that Dr. Hilgard, after making a thoroughgoing survey of the State, published his "Report on the Agriculture and Geology of Mississippi."

Another shining name is that of Dr. Landon Cabell Garland, who followed Barnard in the chair of physics and astronomy. He had been president of the University of Alabama before coming to Mississippi. After eight years of exceptionally able service in his professorship here, he again accepted an administrative position, becoming the first chancellor of Vanderbilt University.

Garland's successor in the chair of physics and astronomy was Robert Burwell Fulton, nationally known as an educator and executive. Fulton is

a name never to be forgotten at "Ole Miss." The University experienced its greatest expansion during his long and able administration.[1]

About all that is left of the University, as it was before the Civil War, are the old observatory, the old chapel, and the Lyceum with its historic columns. May no vandal ever lay his hand on a single brick that keeps ceaseless vigil in these walls! Should that happen, the very stones in the newer buildings would cry out and shame us into decent respect for the past and veneration for the men who made the present possible.

"The old order changeth, giving place to the new." Our faces are toward the future. We are not looking backward with a longing that is more wistful than wise. We are the better fitted for the struggle of today if first we lay a flower to the memory of men who lived and loved and labored here and into whose labors we have entered.

[1] Alfred Hume. "Robert Burwell Fulton: Chancellor of the University of Mississippi, 1829-1906." The Southern Association Quarterly 3: 537-539; November 1939.

The Early History of Washington and Lee University

By Latham B. Weber

Director of the News Bureau, Washington and Lee University

Washington and Lee University had its origin in a small, classical school founded in 1749. During the interim of nearly two centuries since Augusta Academy was established a few miles from the present site of the campus, the institution has developed from an academy to a modern liberal arts college, and its name has passed through an evolution of five changes.

The wave of Scotch-Irish immigrants that penetrated the mountains of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia during the early part of the eighteenth century reached deep into the Shenandoah Valley of Virginia. Bringing with them a native devotion to religion and education, the settlers in Augusta County, Virginia, established a school, Augusta Academy, in 1749, fifteen miles southwest of the present city of Staunton, with Robert Alexander as its first principal.

Fired by enthusiasm for freedom from foreign tyranny, the trustees of the school on May 6, 1776, two months before the signing of the Declaration of Independence, changed the name of the institution to Liberty Hall. Four years later the academy was moved to the immediate vicinity of Lexington.

The institution was incorporated in 1782 by the legislature of Virginia as Liberty Hall Academy and was empowered to grant academic degrees. The incorporation was brought about largely through the efforts of the Rev. William Graham, the third principal of the school and the first president after its incorporation. The Rev. Mr. Graham, a graduate of Princeton, had been a close associate and classmate of Henry Lee, the "Light Horse Harry" Lee of Revolutionary War fame, whose son, Robert E. Lee, led the Confederate armies during the War Between the States and then became president of this institution (its name having been changed by that time to Washington College).

The development of the present university title really began in 1798 when George Washington made a generous gift to the endowment of Liberty Hall Academy, and the institution's name was changed in honor of its benefactor. The Virginia legislature in recognition of Washington's services during the Revolution had presented him with one hundred shares of James River Canal stock and fifty shares of Potomac Canal stock. Washington refused to accept these for his own benefit, but later agreed to receive them with the understanding that he might dedicate them to "objects of a public nature," and turned them over to Liberty Hall Academy.

By act of the Virginia legislature in January, 1798, the name of the school accordingly was changed to Washington Academy, and in April of that year the trustees acknowledged the gift in a letter to Washington and informed him of the change in the name of the institution.

His reply included the following statement of his own interest in education in the democracy which he had helped to establish:

> To promote literature in this rising empire and to encourage the arts have ever been amongst the warmest wishes of my heart, and if the donation which the generosity of the Legislature of the Commonwealth of Virginia has enabled me to bestow on Liberty Hall—now by your politeness called Washington Academy—is likely to prove a means to accomplish these ends, it will contribute to the gratification of my desires.

The gift from Washington still is a part of the university's endowment, the state of Virginia having taken over the corporate powers of the James River Canal Company in 1818 and later granted bonds to replace the stock.

The change from an academy to a college was accomplished in 1813 during the presidency of George Addison Baxter. The name, Washington College, adopted at that time with the authorization of the Virginia legislature, was continued until 1871, shortly after the death of General Lee, when the present corporate title, Washington and Lee University, was assumed.

During the years between the Revolution and the War Between the States, the growth of the institution was gradual. A fire in 1802 destroyed the grey stone building that housed the academy, and after a year in rented quarters the school was moved a half-mile to the first building on the present campus. Construction of the Washington College building, central unit of the present group of academic buildings, was begun in 1824. Three gifts—the donation from Washington, a contribution of funds from the Society of the Cincinnati in Virginia, and a bequest from John Robinson, a native of Ireland, a soldier under Washington, and later a trustee of the college—formed the financial foundation of the college for nearly three-quarters of the nineteenth century. These three endowments together amounted to but little more than one hundred thousand dollars.

The War Between the States left the college nearly on the verge of financial collapse. Classes had been discontinued shortly after the outbreak of the war, and most of the students had enlisted in the Confederate army under the name of the Liberty Hall Volunteers. The college buildings had been seriously damaged, and many of the books had been taken from the library when the Federal army occupied Lexington in June, 1864. According to local tradition, the college buildings were saved from total destruction only by the entreaties of Lexington ladies, who ran to the Northern officers,

pointed to the wooden statue of Washington atop the main building, explained with the aid of documents from the library Washington's endowment of the college, and persuaded the officers not to burn the property.

The college being without income from its endowment at the close of the war, the trustees borrowed money on their private credit for the repair of the buildings and began the work of rehabilitation. About thirty years afterward the Congress of the United States granted remuneration to the institution for the destruction of property by the invading army.

On August 4, 1865, the presidency of this war-torn college was offered to General Lee. It was not the only offer made to the leader of the defeated Confederate armies. He had recently refused an offer of an estate and competence in England, the post of commander-in-chief of a foreign army, and the presidency of a large life insurance company at a salary of $50,000 a year. He had declined the presidencies of two other Southern universities and had refused to write his memoirs for a publishing company on the ground that it might fan hostile embers which he believed should cool as soon as possible.

Because he had been excluded from the terms of amnesty in the proclamation of the President of the United States on May 29, 1865, he delayed accepting the appointment as president of Washington College, fearing that he might draw a feeling of hostility toward the institution. On August 24, however, he decided to accept and wrote the following letter to the committee which had informed him of the offer:

I have delayed for some days replying to your letter of the 5th inst., informing me of my election by the Board of Trustees to the Presidency of Washington College, from a desire to give the subject due consideration. Fully impressed with the responsibilities of the office, I have feared that I should be unable to discharge its duties to the satisfaction of the Trustees or to the benefit of the country. The proper education of youth requires not only great ability, but, I fear, more strength than I now possess, for I do not feel able to undergo the labour of conducting classes in regular courses of instruction. I could not, therefore, undertake more than the general administration and supervision of the institution. There is another subject which has caused me serious reflection and is, I think, worthy of the consideration of the Board. Being excluded from the terms of amnesty in the proclamation of the President of the U. S. of the 29th May last, and an object of censure to a portion of the country, I have thought it probable that my occupation of the position of President might draw upon the College a feeling of hostility, and I should, therefore, cause injury to an institution which it would be my highest desire to advance. I think it the duty of every citizen, in the present condition of the country, to do all in his power to aid in the restoration of peace and harmony, and in no way to oppose the policy of the State or General Governments directed to that object. It is particularly incumbent on those charged with the instruction of the young to set them an example of submission to authority, and I could not consent to be the cause of animadversion upon the College.

Should you, however, take a different view, and think that my services in the position tendered me by the Board will be advantageous to the College and country, I

will yield to your judgment and accept it. Otherwise I must most respectfully decline the office.

Begging you to express to the Trustees of the College my heartfelt gratitude for the honour conferred upon me, and requesting you to accept my cordial thanks for the kind manner in which you have communicated its decision, I am, gentlemen, with great respect

Your most obedient servant,

R. E. Lee

General Lee was formerly installed as president of the college on October 2, 1865, and held this position until his death on October 12, 1870—a five-year period during which the development of the institution was phenomenal.

In the academic year of 1859-60 there had been ninety-five students, all except one from the state of Virginia. In 1867-68, 410 students were enrolled from twenty states and one foreign country. Sixty-eight per cent of the students came from outside Virginia. The cosmopolitan nature of the student body has continued since General Lee's time; in the academic year just closed (1940-41), Washington and Lee students came from forty different states and several foreign lands, with approximately eighty per cent of the student body non-Virginian.

While the enrollment was being expanded during General Lee's regime, drastic changes were made in the curriculum. During the first year of his administration, five new departments of study in liberal arts were added, and an elective system, within prescribed limits, was introduced in place of the traditional course of study. Then in 1866 the law school was added through an alliance with the Lexington Law School, which had been founded as a private institution in 1849. In the same year a School of Civil and Mining Engineering was organized. The next year the foundation for the present School of Commerce and Business Administration was laid with the establishment of a "Students' Business School." The development of this school along lines hitherto untried by American colleges was proposed by General Lee in a report to the board of trustees January 8, 1869:

> In recommending a Commercial School, it is proposed, not merely to give instruction in bookkeeping and the forms and details of business, but to teach the principles of Commercial Economy, Trade and Mercantile Law. Such a school may, with great advantage, be added to the Schools of the College, as many students may by its means prepare themselves for business pursuits while obtaining such scientific and literary culture in the other schools as time and opportunity may allow.

Also in 1869 General Lee proposed the establishment of instruction in journalism, and the trustees approved his plan for granting fifty scholarships annually to young men "proposing to make printing or journalism their profession." The trustees also agreed to establish a college printing shop or to make arrangements with an established newspaper for instruction

to be given the students. The *Virginia Gazette*, a Lexington newspaper, was chosen as the "laboratory," and Major John J. Lafferty, editor of the paper, was appointed a member of the college faculty—the first time that an American college offered courses in journalism. Unfortunately this early work in journalism bore little immediate fruit. General Lee died the following year. The proposed scholarships were never used. In fact the whole plan for journalism instruction was dropped in 1878, not to be revived at the institution until 1925, when the present Lee Journalism Foundation was established.

General G. W. Custis Lee succeeded his father as president of the college in 1871—the same year in which the name of the institution was changed to Washington and Lee University.

During the past seventy years the university has grown in size to its present enrollment of about 950, established as a maximum in order to preserve the benefits of a small college. Its policy has followed the broad outlines suggested by General Lee—of modifying its curriculum to meet changes in social conditions and educational needs. In recent years this policy has led to a revision of the plan of study to provide an "exploratory" freshman year, broader courses in the sophomore year, and specialized courses in the junior and senior years.

Rather extensive changes in physical equipment have been made since 1930, when Dr. Francis P. Gaines became president. Destruction of the law school building by fire in 1934 called attention strikingly to the need for fire-proofing all of the buildings of the Washington College group. Accordingly in 1936, following the construction of a new building for the law school in 1935, Washington College and Newcomb Hall, housing the School of Commerce, were completely modernized. The building program was continued with the construction of one new freshman dormitory, the modernization of two older dormitories in 1940, and the completion of the new Cyrus Hall McCormick Library early in 1941.

The University of North Carolina and the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

By R. B. House

Dean of Administration, University of North Carolina

The year 1895 was marked by the founding of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools—that is to say, by a region's effort to unify its spirit of education, to agree on its standards and objectives, and to raise those standards more nearly to the measure of the nation. In the background of the movement was chaos, the result of collapse through defeat in war of every element of regional civilization except its spirit; in particular, each community in the South had been re-working itself from nothing to something in the way of schools, colleges, and universities. It had been a twenty-year labor of making bricks without straw, and it was but natural that each several institution should have been so immersed in its own particular problems of bare economic survival as to have been obtuse to any general view of educational values in the large. The laborer can be held so far below the bread and butter line that he hopes only for certain private improvements in his status and is indifferent to public concerns, because life is to him a dog-eat-dog affair. Such had been the circumstances of economic survival in the struggles of each Southern institution, and the psychology of the situation was secretive, competitive, and defiant in tone.

It was altogether fitting that Vanderbilt University should have issued the call for association in a larger view. By the grace of a lift from outside resources it was perhaps the first Southern institution able at that time to view education with perspective, because it was economically in relatively less pain. The first task of the Association was one of diplomacy, to invite particularism to measure itself against the universal, whereas the stresses and strains of the time imprisoned it in individual concerns. As for standards, each several institution had one; namely, to justify the loyalty of its constituency and to fight for its life. And loyalty is always far readier to assert achievement in its object than to submit to impartial criticism. The times required that educational teachers first get acquainted in friendship and woo each other into a calmer view of educational standards and woo their constituencies into support of these standards. For example, Battle, Winston, Alderman, those presidents of the University of North Carolina in its most trying days, brought to the Association the *finesse* acquired on the hustings on which the issue of the debate was not so much the betterment of educational standards as the right and the means to exist at all. Each of these educational men had gained experience not only in the Uni-

versity of North Carolina, but (in the career of Battle), in the law and the government of the State, and (in the careers of Alderman and Winston) in other and different universities and colleges, professional chairs, and public schools. They were able to meet with their peers coming together from similar broad and practical experiences in other Southern states and to help maintain a tone of discussion which was necessary to wise deliberation. And, as the Association grew, they could meet their peers from other institutions of the State on higher ground than that of institutional rivalries within North Carolina.

McIver, the founder of higher education for women in North Carolina as a state function, M. C. S. Noble, Alexander Graham, Edward P. Moses, James Y. Joyner, all war-horses in the fight for public schools, and Charles B. Aycock, the educational governor *par excellence* of the State, were some of the other sons of the University of North Carolina who brought a practical sense of ways and means to the regional effort, coupled with a fierce loyalty to democratic and spiritual ideals. It was men like these coming from public, church-related, and private institutions in the South who laid the diplomatic, political, and economic groundwork for advance in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

It was through the efforts of these statesmen that the Southern states made more definite economic commitments to state schools, colleges, and universities, whereas they had formerly done little more than charter them and provide for their government. For instance, it was Battle who had led in reopening the University of North Carolina which had been closed from 1870 to 1875 by reason of its endowments having been swept away by the Civil War, and by reason of "carpet-bag" manipulation of its remaining resources. It was Winston who prevailed on the State to commit itself to direct annual appropriation of public funds to support of the University. And it was Alderman who integrated popular enthusiasm for the University with popular enthusiasm for the public schools.

It was the peers of Battle, Winston, and Alderman, the presidents of the church-related and private colleges of North Carolina, who led the fruitful turn in the policies of their colleges from political bickering over state support to the state institutions to rallying their several constituencies to more adequate church support and more generous private endowment. And it was Noble, McIver, Joyner, and Aycock who with these led increase after increase in support for public schools without ever allowing any division to arise between the schools and the colleges in the contest for money.

The year 1895 marked not only the beginning of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools as a stimulus and guide to educational policy in North Carolina, it marked the one-hundreth anniversary of the opening of the University of North Carolina, roughly the fiftieth anniversary of the public schools, the fiftieth anniversary of the leading church-

related colleges of North Carolina, and the first decade of State College of Agriculture and Engineering, and of the State Woman's College. The fine company of Negro colleges were under way, and the fine company of teachers colleges were just in the offing.

With the exception of Salem College, founded in 1772, the University of North Carolina was then, as now, not only the oldest institution of higher education in the State, it was very nearly the oldest educational institution of any kind within the State; for freedom to found schools and colleges in North Carolina was a freedom postponed until complete freedom had been won in the Revolution. Hence, the University of North Carolina, venerable even then, bore in its structure the scars of every social, religious, political, and economic conflict in every period of the State, and bore rich deposits of every gain that had been made through these conflicts. It had been endowed by its founders with high hopes and little else except the privilege of escheated property. It had gained the applause of some, mostly its alumni, who asserted that it was the *beau ideal* of a university. It had fallen under the condemnation of many who had remained apart from it, determined to build in some other way colleges and universities nearer to their own particular desires. Its educational progress had been rapid from about the status of a high school in 1795 to that of a high-grade college of liberal arts in 1860, a college distinguished for the number and quality of men it constantly sent into the public service, and distinguished for the quality of its scientific research. Its economic status had gradually risen from a hand to mouth existence, derived solely from student fees, to that of an institution handsomely endowed by escheated lands of the Revolutionary soldiers. Its spiritual condition was healthy in the witness of generations of alumni, not unattended by that dry rot which always accompanies considerations of prestige.

It had one great resource—some loved it to idolatry, some hated it blindly, but no one was indifferent to it. It was in and of North Carolina, bone of its bone, flesh of its flesh, spirit of its spirit. And when North Carolina ventured into the abyss of internecine war, the University of North Carolina went with its people into chaos. Nor has it since then risen, or desired to rise, one inch above the status of its constituency.

Its dealings with the needs and the hopes of an individualistic people had endowed it with a delicate *finesse*, but not with a complete wisdom. It was obtuse and awkward in dealing with the needs of agriculture and industry; hence the rise of a separate college to care for these needs. It was obtuse and awkward in dealing with the needs of women; hence the rise of a separate college to care for the higher education of women. It was not in the nature of things that it could coördinate in one university system the tumultuous interests of church-related and private colleges, though there were from time to time suggestions in theory, never in practice, that it should do so.

And it was impossible that it take any direct hand in dealing with the higher educational needs of the Negroes. It was a good sample of a particularist institution operating under State control with a minimum of State aid in open competition for life with other particularistic institutions, whether they operated by state, by church, or by private aid. It is no wonder that ugly echoes still reverberate from the period. It is a wonder that these fierce economic rivals ever agreed to attempt a larger mutual view. They did so by virtue of the fact that strong men who fight in open war always grow to respect each other.

By virtue of the groundwork laid by these educational statesmen and diplomats, the members of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools could, at the turn of the century, look at a regional and even a national standard, and set about the measuring of their several institutions. In Francis Preston Venable, the University of North Carolina furnished to the South an example of scholarly examination and re-enforcing. Venable was free for fourteen years to comb over the University, department by department, and to bring it quietly but firmly nearer to a national standard. Scholarly progress at the University of North Carolina will forever owe him a debt of gratitude.

It was in Venable's administration that regional standards changed in the view of the president from a matter of state which he himself had better negotiate with his sovereign peers, to a matter of fact business to be handled in a more routine, and at the same time in a more expert, way. The Southern institutions in the main were no longer negotiating for the right to exist, but with this right taken for granted were really getting their specialists to work on their professional problems.

It was in the administration of President Venable that Nathan Wilson Walker, Dean of the School of Education at the University of North Carolina, began his work with the Southern Association. He was secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools from 1912 through 1915. He was president of the Southern Association and a member of its Executive Committee from 1925 through 1926. He was the official representative of the University of North Carolina from about 1911 until his death in 1936. He was a regular contributor to the programs, and he made special studies as to requirements for various degrees that were proposed for approval. But far and above such a skeleton of official duties, Mr. Walker was a leading spirit in the Southern Association. He was a profound student and thinker and accomplished student of philosophy, and with suitcase in hand, by slow train and with horse and buggy, he had literally absorbed the atmosphere of North Carolina and other Southern schools. It was his function in the utmost kindliness of spirit and honesty of labor to lift things that were, more nearly into the stature of things as they could be.

Beginning with him as a co-laborer in 1922 and as a constant delegate of

the University of North Carolina from that time to date was Thomas J. Wilson, Jr., Dean of Admissions and Registrar. His work was with the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. He also worked with the Committee to certify non-member colleges. He brought to the actual working of the Association the professional knowledge of University standards which has made him famous in the field of his specialty.

It is interesting to observe that the connection of the University of North Carolina in the early days of the Southern Association was with the problem of accrediting high schools. The next problem concerning the University was that of collegiate standards. Of course, this was true of every other member institution likewise. So rapidly has the situation advanced that today the Southern Association concerns itself more than ever with matters of research and graduate study. One of the great personalities in the study of Southern education in relation to standards was the late William Preston Few, President of Duke University. In the latter years of his administration he was particularly interested in a conference of Southern universities, having particular regard to graduate schools. Stimulated by the work of this conference and also by their own mutual problems within the past two decades, the deans of Southern graduate schools have been meeting in conference. Dean William Whately Pierson, of the Graduate School of the University of North Carolina, and Dean Calvin B. Hoover, of the Graduate School of Duke University, acting for this conference, have just prepared and submitted to the membership recommendations as to minimum standards for the master's degree. It is encouraging to note that some thirty-two Southern institutions are in fairly general agreement with these recommendations, although the several institutions reserved certain rights for experimentation and adjustment. The encouraging thing, however, is that Southern graduate schools are today further along the road of mutual agreement in practice than were Southern colleges and universities only one or two decades ago. One of the most fruitful results of this mutual study is a consideration of the strength of individual departments scattered here and there throughout Southern institutions with regard to their ability to train students for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This careful combing over of the resources of the South and this stimulus toward the building up of adequate departments, regardless of the relative strength of other departments in the same institution, is a tendency of much interest to those who hope to see this region developing and diversifying its educational resources. Certain minimum standards for high schools are taken for granted, certain minimum standards for colleges and universities are taken for granted, and minimum standards for graduate work, as far as the Master's degree, are under negotiation. There are many justifiable separate reasons why all Master's degrees should not be standardized. Teacher training, public health, and social work are by no means ready for abstract standardization, and possibly

graduate work beyond the minimum standard for the Master's degree will remain experimental and adapt itself to separate resources here and there for many years to come.

With Edward Kidder Graham as president, the University of North Carolina really came into a measure of State support adequate to its immediate needs and comparable with the needs of the State and the resources of the State. He blue-printed for a Southern state what a Southern state university could be. He was an evangel of higher education integrated with a more abundant democratic life. The North Carolina renaissance beginning with the earlier statesmen of the close of the Nineteenth Century began to implement itself under his leadership with full equipment of a modern state university. His heart was so pure and courageous, his mind so clear, his will so firm that death could not check the momentum his four years of leadership had given the South.

Edward Kidder Graham died in the influenza epidemic of 1918. His successor and kindred spirit, Marvin Hendrix Stacy, died in a similar epidemic. Harry Woodburn Chase, the first "Yankee" to head the University since Joseph Caldwell, its first president, became president in 1919. President Chase was blessed with two qualities which made him the exact man for the new day; namely, modesty and a clear head. In his modesty he gave way to the momentum of faculty, alumni, and civic enthusiasm which not only swept the State into rebuilding, adding to, staffing, and equipping the University, but into expanding and enriching every other agency of the State. In his clarity of mind he urbanely guided this constructive effort not only on the level of national standards but in a way to enrich those standards, particularly in the field of scholarly research and publication, and in the creation of a high-grade Graduate School.

It was in Chase's administration that the University of North Carolina was challenged as a "prestige" institution by the sudden, dramatic, and statesmanlike rise of Duke University. Old Trinity and the old University of North Carolina had eyed each other in competition for nearly a hundred years. Would old habits of thought and old bitternesses prevail as the new Duke and the new Carolina squared off? The answer seems prophetic of a new day for higher education in North Carolina. These two universities, rubbing elbows so far as distance is concerned, polarized into opposites so far as means and sources of means are concerned, fierce rivals athletically, jealous contenders for public favor and prestige, each manage to maintain the full force of individual loyalties, and yet practically to dovetail their resources so that by a division of labor they manage to occupy together a field that neither could hope to occupy separately. For the first time North Carolina has been able to consider calmly the possibility that there is wisdom in such sharing of labor and of prestige, and to free itself from the ancient obsession that in order to live each institution must claim for itself one

hundred per cent adequacy in every department of knowledge. And with the sharing of labor between Duke and Carolina, notably in coördinating their library resources, and their resources for teaching medicine and public health, the way was opened for a similar coordination of medicine and public health between Carolina and Wake Forest. Similarly, with the quieting of fears about being up to standard in general among the members of the North Carolina College Conference, the way is now open for greater diversity in Junior Colleges and Senior Colleges, far greater individuality in experiment and a more intelligent adaptation of our many colleges to our varying collegiate needs. For instance, the idea of a college maintaining itself through the labor of its students is gaining new and successful expression in the rebirth of Louisburg College and the rise of Pfeiffer College. This idea was dear to the hearts of those who founded the first church-related colleges, but it was not in accord with the times and therefore died.

President Chase, having wrought well in the University of North Carolina, in college relations in North Carolina, and in the South and Nation, went on to fresh labors in Illinois and then in New York University. He was succeeded by Frank Graham and the depression. President Graham's formal inaugural came later. His real inaugural came immediately in 1930 with the remark, "We haven't begun to fight." It was a fight for existence from the day he took office, a fight as bitter in its possibilities as any in the Reconstruction days. He won it because he is a moral genius. He identified the University with the highest moral insights of both friends and enemies, in fact he recognized no enemy except the weaker moments of himself and his fellow man. He fought for the ideal objectives of every school, college, university, and agency for well-being private or public in the State and in the nation. And, utterly devoid of political ambition, he proved to be the best of politicians—a man who wants nothing for himself.

Consolidation of the University of North Carolina, State College, and the Woman's College, a child of the depression, was provided for by the State in the first years of his administration, but he had a brief time after winning new life for the one-campus university as of old to search it through and through, to begin its reorganization in terms of a basic two-year general college, a more rationally specialized college of arts and sciences, a school of commerce, and far-ranging divisions of humanities, social science, natural science, professional, and graduate schools. There is no question that the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill is today better, department by department, than it has ever been before and is run more economically than it has ever been before. The same thing is true of State College and the Woman's College. Once more the "prestige" psychology dear to human institutions was shocked at Chapel Hill by the loss of some of its functions respectively to State College and to the Woman's College—offset though they were by transfer of other functions to it from those colleges. Institu-

tions like to keep what they have and to get more, never to give up anything. But under the leadership of President Graham—a leadership always more in danger from the special pleadings of friends than from the threats of enemies—North Carolina is gathering her three main resources of State-supported higher education into one university, administratively, educationally, and spiritually. And with the advent of increased Federal aid and private gifts the tri-partite University has been vastly expanded in plant and equipment. The University of North Carolina approaches its sesquicentennial in 1943. It was conceived in a time of struggle for the bare essentials of freedom. It got going and has maintained itself through times in which its particular freedom was called into question as social crises agitated the whole question of freedom. It has, on the whole, maintained its freedom through each of these crises, coming nearest to losing it in the heated times of the Civil War. Its essential experience through nearly one hundred and fifty years has been that young men and women and their teachers can be trusted with freedom to develop themselves and to study anything that is capable of study. The chief enemy of freedom is not freedom to grow and to study. It is fear in the souls of men that they are not good enough for freedom. The experience of North Carolina educationally in the State, in the region, and in the nation is that the personnel and the processes of education can be trusted since they are in and of the free, spiritual process.

The South needs no more than the nation, but it will ever need to keep alive a spiritual atmosphere in which universities may exist and do their work in freedom. Fear of one sort or another is the perpetual enemy to such freedom. Perfect love alone can cast out fear. Fellowship is an introduction to this spiritual state, and friendship is a close approach to it. Perhaps the most permanent contribution of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is in this spiritual and social field of developing acquaintanceship into fellowship and friendship. One of the ideas implied in this paper is that when institutions have to fight for existence below the bread and butter line, it is extremely difficult for them to be other than bitter, angry, and separatist in policy. The South certainly should make the effort necessary to maintain the institutions of education at a level on which the amenities of coöperation are possible. The South is relatively poor. It needs to husband its resources carefully and it needs every item of Federal aid it can get legitimately. Federal aid is not going to come, in the opinion of the writer, unless the needs of the Negro for higher education are met more adequately according to national standards. It is entirely possible to meet these needs of the Negro without violating our customs as to separate educational institutions. But such separation adds to the special economic burden of the South. It is all the more important, therefore, that the region gather its resources, divide its labors, and diversify its institutions, with a national standard of education implied in the very structure of each institution what-

ever its specialty. The greatest opportunity for educational statesmanship in the nation lies before the Southern region. The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, in the spirit in which it has done its groundwork in the formative years and is now conducting its particular surveys, has the spirit to rise to this opportunity.

The Development and Organization of the University of Alabama

By Edward W. Gregory, Jr.
Professor of Sociology, University of Alabama

The fathers of the State of Alabama were also the real founders of its University. In their wisdom they recognized clearly that the lasting values of statehood do not flourish in an atmosphere of ignorance and that trained leadership, so essential to a democratic way of life, must be provided for in a systematic and orderly manner. Meeting in Huntsville, Alabama Territory, in July of 1819, the men of the Constitutional Convention envisioned a real state university for Alabama when they adopted the following article:

> Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged in this state. . . . The general assembly shall take like measures for the improvement of such lands as have been or may hereafter be granted by the United States to this state for the support of a seminary of learning and the moneys which may be raised from such lands by rent, lease, or sale, or from any other quarter for the purpose aforesaid, shall be and remain a fund for the exclusive support of a state university, for the promotion of the arts, literature, and the sciences; and it shall be the duty of the general assembly, as early as may be, to provide effectual means for the improvement and permanent security of the funds and endowments of such institutions.

Although twelve years passed before this state institution opened its doors to Alabama youths, they were not years of inactivity. Funds were accumulated, plans drawn, a site selected, and a faculty chosen. The Congress of the United States in 1819 had donated seventy-two sections, or 46,080 acres, of land within the state for the support of a seminary of learning. On December 18, 1820, during its second session, the general assembly passed an act establishing a seminary of learning "to be denominated the University of Alabama." The General Assembly in its third session, on December 13, 1821, provided for a board of twelve trustees composed of two members each from the six judicial districts, with the governor as an *ex-officio* member. This board held its first meeting in the town of Tuscaloosa on April 6, 1822. Five years later, on December 29, 1827, the General Assembly approved Tuscaloosa as the seat of the University. Three months after this the trustees selected as the site for the institution a level plateau approximately a mile and a quarter east of the courthouse in Tuscaloosa; the land chosen was a part of the original grant of the United States Congress.

Even before a site for the University had been agreed upon, the Board of Trustees had commissioned the state architect to submit plans for suitable buildings. These plans were given final approval on March 24, 1828. The design of the original buildings, while not actual copies, were inspired largely by the classical architecture which Thomas Jefferson had conceived for the institution he had founded in 1819—the University of Virginia. The fathers of the University of Alabama were as deeply impressed with Jefferson's principles of democracy as they were with his architectural style, and they sought eagerly to have the new institution of learning express in its life and spirit as well as in the classic elegance of its buildings the ideals of Jeffersonian democracy.

The trustees of the University delegated the selection of the first faculty to a "college-bred man," James G. Birney, a well educated young citizen of Huntsville. Birney was sent forth to gather information concerning the qualifications of persons who could be secured for the presidency and the professorships. That he was effective in his search is evidenced by the distinguished company of scholars that made up the faculty when the University of Alabama opened its doors to receive students on April 18, 1831. The Reverend Alva Woods, D.D., had given up the presidency of Transylvania University at Lexington, Kentucky, to become the first president of the University of Alabama. In addition to the president, who was also professor of mental and moral philosophy, the original faculty comprised Gordon Saltonstall and William H. Hudson, professors of mathematics, natural philosophy, and astronomy, John F. Wallis, professor of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology, Rev. Henry W. Hilliard, professor of English literature, and Henry Tutwiler, professor of ancient languages. Young Mr. Tutwiler, a recent graduate of the university of Jefferson, brought to the new institution a quality of mind closely akin to that of the father of American democracy. He was destined to exert a profound and far-reaching influence upon the cultural development of Alabama.

The first student body of ninety-four young men pursued under this group of teachers a course of study conventional in that day. It consisted almost entirely of instruction in classical knowledge and moral philosophy. Four years of study were prescribed for completion of the full course, at the conclusion of which the bachelor's degree was awarded. It appears, however, that students were admitted who did not desire the full academic course, and a certificate was granted in each subject pursued. Requirements for admission to the freshman class included a knowledge of Latin, Greek, and English grammar, arithmetic, and geography. Apparently a number of students were unable to meet these admission requirements, and in 1837 a preparatory class, enrolling twenty-seven students, was taught in the University.

The first six years of the University's life were far from tranquil for the

small faculty. Despite their unquestioned ability and high character, conflicts developed, the causes of which are not clear from the records, and popular sentiment called for a change. President Woods tendered his resignation on July 5, 1837, and was joined in this action by all of the original faculty. Only Richard T. Brumby, who had succeeded John F. Wallis as professor of chemistry, continued under the regime that followed.

The Reverend Basil Manly became president in 1837. He soon dispelled the confusion in which he found the young institution, and during the eighteen years that followed he raised the University to a real place of prominence and usefulness. Landon Cabell Garland, an ardent champion of Jeffersonian ideals, came to the presidency in 1855; his too was a notable administration. The years that intervened between the founding of the University and the War Between the States saw a number of great scholars on the faculty, among them Michael Toumey, eminent scientist, and Frederick A. P. Barnard, later president for many years of Columbia University in New York City. It was the latter who induced the board of trustees in 1839 to purchase for the University magnetic and astronomical equipment at a cost of $2,800 and to erect an observatory costing $2,000. Largely through his influence the teaching of science came into a place of prominence in the University.

Throughout the early period of the University's life the active administration of its affairs remained in the hands of the Board of Trustees. The Board passed on all matters relating to courses of instruction and left to the president and faculty the responsibility for classroom teaching and problems of discipline. There were few changes made in the courses offered, the trustees apparently finding great satisfaction in the subjects originally prescribed as proper for the youth to pursue. During the eighteen-fifties the board concerned itself no little with the choice between the earlier prescribed course of study and the "eclectic" or "elective" system which had attracted considerable attention at the University of Virginia. Under the latter plan a student might select, within certain very definite limits, the courses he wished to pursue. In 1852, after visiting a number of the outstanding colleges and universities in the country, President Manly made an extensive report to the trustees on the relative merits of the two systems and expressed himself as opposed to the system of electives. The board, however, seems to have been eager to give the new plan a trial and rejected the recommendation of the president. The new system went into effect in 1854. A lengthy report on the new system, prevously requested by the trustees, was prepared by Professor Barnard in which he expressed an unfavorable opinion of the system. After three years, the trustees decided to return to the former program of prescribed work. The board considered the matter again in July of 1859 and again decided in favor of the eclectic system.

The system of liberal electives, which was continued until the last decade

of the nineteenth century, did away with the traditional class divisions. Courses were divided into eight groups, designated as "departments" which included: moral and mental science; logic, rhetoric, and oratory; Latin; Greek; modern languages; mathematics; natural philosophy and astronomy; chemistry, mineralogy, and geology. Three divisions of courses, junior, intermediate, and senior, were offered in each department. Students might take what they wished provided they pursued work in not less than three departments.

From the very beginning the University had offered the degree of Bachelor of Arts. Originally the program of courses leading to the degree had been prescribed in full for each of the four years, but under the eclectic system the student selected each year the departments in which he wished to study. Completion of the junior and intermediate work in any department was rewarded with a diploma in that subject. The bachelor's degree was awarded upon completion of the junior and intermediate classes in all of the departments of the University. The higher degree of Master of Arts was given first as an honorary degree to "every Bachelor of Arts of three years standing, who has, in the meantime, sustained a good moral character and has studied some art, science, or profession." The holder of the Bachelor's degree who wished to receive the Master's degree was required to make application for it at least two months before commencement. In 1859 the Master of Arts became an earned degree and was awarded the student who had completed all of the classes, junior, intermediate, and senior, in all of the departments.

The outbreak of the war in 1861 brought dark days to the South and to the University of Alabama. Despite the financial hardships resulting from the sharp depreciation of the Confederate currency without a corresponding increase in its revenues, the University rendered invaluable service to the section in the training of troops. These men acquitted themselves nobly on the fields of battle. Then came tragedy of the starkest sort. Within but a few days of the surrender at Appomattox, a body of federal cavalry set fire to and completely destroyed all of the principal public buildings of the University. Only the "Little Round House," the small astronomical observatory, and the president's mansion were spared the fury of the flames.

Undaunted in the face of sad misfortune, the men of Alabama who believed steadfastly in the eternal usefulness of their University set about to restore it. Theirs was far from an easy task. The first building of the new institution was constructed of bricks and other materials salvaged from the ruins of the old buildings. In April, 1869, the University resumed collegiate instruction, and enrolled during the session a total of fifty-four students.

The years that followed were trying years. The section and the state were striving to pull out of the political and economic chaos that came in the wake of the War. The new University that rose on the ruins of the old was

a monument to the ability, courage, and energy of the men who in the face of overwhelming obstacles had the stoutness of heart to undertake the restoration. In 1870 William R. Smith became president of the University, but he served only one year. He was succeeded by Nathaniel T. Lupton, who in the next three years started the institution on the road to recovery. In addition to these, six men held the office of president before the end of the century: Carlos G. Smith (1874-1878), General Josiah Gorgas (1878-1879), Burwell B. Lewis (1880-1885), Henry D. Clayton (1886-1889), Richard Channing Jones (1890-1897), and James Knox Powers (1897-1901). William S. Wyman who had served as acting president for short periods on three previous occasions was president in 1901-1902.

The rehabilitation of the University was aided greatly in 1884 by an act of the Congress of the United States donating to the institution an additional 46,080 acres of public lands within the state. This donation was made, through the efforts of Senator John T. Morgan, in restitution of the loss in buildings and equipment in 1865.

With the reopening of the University in 1869 certain changes in the organization of the program of studies was undertaken. By the second session after the War a very greatly enriched offering was announced. The University was composed of two general departments: (1) a Preparatory Department and (2) an Academic Department.

The Preparatory Department afforded students who did not meet the entrance requirements of the University the opportunity to make up their deficiencies. The Academic Department was composed of eleven schools as follows: (1) Ancient Languages, (2) Modern Languages, (3) English Language and Literature, (4) Moral Philosophy, (5) Mathematics, (6) Chemistry, (7) Mineralogy and Geology, (8) Natural History, (9) Military Science, (10) Normal School, and (11) School of Law. Upon completion of all of the studies in a single school, the student was declared a graduate of that school and was awarded a diploma. In 1871-72, five degrees were offered: Bachelor of Philosophy, Bachelor of Science, Bachelor of Arts, Civil Engineer, and Master of Arts. For each degree was prescribed a special program of studies with considerable allowance for electives. The Master's degree was granted the student who had graduated in all of the schools; this was later changed to advanced study in at least three of the academic schools.

In 1872-73, a department of professional education was established comprising the Normal School and the School of Law. Other than a few minor changes in the courses offered in particular schools and the addition of a school of civil engineering, the organization developed in 1872 was continued until after the turn of the century. Requirements for degrees were modified from time to time, and by 1889-90 the earlier programs had been replaced by four undergraduate courses of study leading to degrees. These included

the classical course, the scientific course, the civil engineering course, and the mining engineering course. The following year a literary course was added.

As the nineteenth century drew to a close, another significant change in the policy of the University took place. Largely through the influence of Julia Strudwick Tutwiler, brilliant daughter of Henry Tutwiler and indefatigable advocate of higher education for women, the first woman student was enrolled in the University in the session 1893-94. Accepted at first only as "special students" and privileged to take work in only several schools, women were later admitted to all courses.

The dawn of the twentieth century found the University a growing and prospering institution. The academic department had been expanded to include instruction in political economy, biology, German, and pedagogy and psychology. Two undergraduate courses were offered: the classical course, leading to the A.B. degree, and the scientific course, leading to the B.S. degree. Several years later a third course, the Latin-scientific course, was added. The Division of Professional Education included departments of engineering, law, medicine, and pharmacy. Medicine and pharmacy had been added in 1897 when the Medical College of Alabama, located at Mobile, became the Medical Department of the University of Alabama. By 1904 a professional department of mines and metallurgy had been developed, and in that year the Summer School for Teachers was established.

The progress made by the University during this period reflects the influence of John W. Abercrombie, who served as president from 1902 to 1911. He conceived the University as the capstone of a general educational system in the state, designed to equip men and women for a full participation in democratic living. The growth of the University resulted in a generous appropriation in 1907 for the erection of new buildings during the years 1907-10 and in a relatively substantial increase in the maintenance fund. Another appropriation for buildings and a further increase in the maintenance fund was made in 1911.

The coming of George Hutcheson Denny to the presidency in 1912 marks the beginning of an era of expansion that had not been equalled in any previous period in the development of the University. During the quarter of a century that he served as president, the University made a number of magnificent additions to its material equipment in the form of handsome buildings, library books, laboratory and other scientific apparatus, and in the facilities for housing and caring for students. In addition to the expansion of the existing departments of instruction, his regime saw the creation of new departments in the fine arts, social sciences, and other subjects. During this period the schools of Commerce and Business Administration, Chemistry, Metallurgy, and Ceramics, and Home Economics were established, and the other divisions were greatly strengthened. As a vigorous leader in

the cause of popular education, President Denny made a lasting contribution to the educational progress of the state and nation.

When in 1937 Doctor Denny became Chancellor in an advisory capacity, the trustees chose for the presidency of the University a native son of Tuscaloosa, Richard Clarke Foster, a prominent young attorney. An able executive of rare personal charm, he has devoted his energies untiringly to the consolidation and further development of the resources of the institution, of which he is an alumnus. In recent years significant additions have been made to the physical equipment, including the Amelia Gayle Gorgas Library (which contains the principal portion of the University's collection of approximately 200,000 volumes), the auditorium, the new dormitories, the new engineering buildings, and the additions to and remodeling of several of the older buildings. A number of additions have been made to the teaching and administrative staffs. Facilities for research have been expanded in several divisions and developed in others.

The University of Alabama is administered at present through the following organizations: (1) College of Arts and Sciences, (2) School of Chemistry, Metallurgy, and Ceramics, (3) School of Commerce and Business Administration, (4) College of Education, (5) College of Engineering, (6) Extension Division, (7) School of Home Economics, (8) School of Law, (9) School of Medicine, (10) School of Mines, (11) the Summer School, and (12) the Graduate School.

For more than three-fourths of its history the University was primarily what is now known as the College of Arts and Sciences. A separate liberal arts division was not created until 1905. Today two degrees, the Bachelor of Arts and the Bachelor of Science, are offered in this division. The requirements for each degree include certain prescribed courses, a major in one subject and two minors, one related to the major and one unrelated. A liberal choice of electives is allowed in each course of study.

The School of Chemistry, Metallurgy, and Ceramics was established in 1929, and offers courses of study in chemistry, commercial chemistry, metallurgy, ceramics, geology and chemistry, pulp and paper, chemistry and bacteriology, and a course for medical technicians.

The School of Commerce and Business Administration was organized in the fall of 1919. Programs of study include private business, pre-law and public business, clothing and textile merchandising, commercial art, and a secretarial curriculum. The School maintains a Bureau of Business Research which issues the *University of Alabama Business News* and publishes research monographs from time to time.

As early as 1842 the University recognized the importance of training teachers for the public schools and announced that year a normal school as a department of the University. A similar announcement was not made again until 1871; instruction in the principles of teaching has been given

continuously since then. In 1908 a department of education was organized; this was expanded into a school a year later. The present College of Education, established in 1928, offers the Bachelor of Arts in Education and the Bachelor of Science in education, commercial education, home economics education, industrial arts education, trades and industrial education, distributive education, physical education, and recreation.

Extension work was first undertaken in 1904, when the professor of secondary education was appointed state inspector of high schools. In 1916 the first real "off campus" courses were offered in Birmingham. The Extension Division was officially established in 1919; since then it has developed a number of extension services including regular classes, correspondence study, lectures, high school debates and publications, club study service, library service, radio workshop, and others. The Division maintains extension centers in several of the larger cities of the state.

Engineering courses were first introduced in 1837, and in 1871 the degree of Civil Engineering was offered. The present College of Engineering, organized in 1909, has professionally accredited curricula in the following: aeronautical, civil, electrical, industrial, mechanical, and mining engineering. Additional courses of study in engineering include chemical, metallurgical, petroleum technology, public health and safety, radio technology, and sanitary engineering. The department of mining engineering at the University is the officially recognized "School of Mines" of the State of Alabama.

The School of Home Economics, organized in 1931, was an outgrowth of the department of home economics. Courses of study offered in the School include family life, institution management, clothing, textiles, and art, nutrition and chemistry, and nutrition and sociology.

A professorship of law was established at the University in 1845 but was discontinued in 1846, owing to the lack of students. Instruction in law was resumed in 1872, when the present law school was organized. The curriculum originally covering only one year was extended to two years in 1897 and to three years in 1920. In 1924 the entrance requirements were raised to include one full year of college work and in 1926 to two years.

The present School of Medicine is an outgrowth of the earlier medical schools at Mobile and Birmingham. The Mobile School, organized in 1859 as the Medical College of Alabama, became the Medical Department of the University of Alabama in 1897. In 1907 all property of the School was transferred to the University, and the present title was assumed. In 1920, due to lack of endowment and adequate financial support, the last two clinical years were suspended and the School was removed to the campus in Tuscaloosa. The Birmingham Medical College, organized in 1894, was also at one time affiliated with the University of Alabama. This college ceased to exist after 1915. The present medical school has been approved since its establishment in 1920 by the Council of Medical Education and Hospitals

of the American Medical Association. All of its students upon successful completion of the two-year curriculum have transferred to approved four-year medical schools for junior standing.

The Summer School, originally organized in 1904 primarily for persons preparing for state examinations for teaching certificates, has expanded its program each year until it is now "the University in operation in the summer." Its offering includes courses in practically all of the schools and colleges of the University. In addition to its regular program of established college work, the Summer School has rendered unusual service in the development of courses not previously offered in the regular session; among these have been courses in home economics, physical education, library science, social work, and others. The Summer School has also sponsored a number of state conferences and institutes held on the campus. These have afforded an opportunity for people to come together, often with specialists in various fields as leaders, to discuss topics and questions of public interest and concern.

Graduate instruction, leading to the Master's degree, is provided for in the University in the Graduate School. Degrees conferred include the Master of Arts and the Master of Science. The Master's degree, first awarded as an honorary degree, became an earned degree in 1859 and was given in the academic department. In 1914 requirements for the degree were made more rigid and stipulated specialization in a specific field of knowledge. The oral examination, originally left to the discretion of the individual departments in which advanced work was pursued, became compulsory in 1923. In 1925 the present Graduate School was organized. Since then systematic graduate work has been developed in practically all of the major departments of the University.

Builders of the Southern Association

*A List of Those Who Have Served in Some Member College or Secondary School as Many as Twenty-five Years**

Explanations and Abbreviations

This list is continued from the issues of February and November, 1938, February, 1939, and February and November, 1940 (See pages 47-83 and 475-79, Volume II, pages 108-56, Volume III, and pages 82-99 and pages 598-614, Volume IV.) It includes faculty and staff members who have served as many as twenty-five years, but have not been listed in this department before. The Quarterly is glad to receive at any time information concerning such staff members.

This list is arranged by states in alphabetical order—Alabama, Florida, Georgia, etc.—and by institutions, colleges and secondary schools in one consolidated list, in alphabetical order—for example, Alabama College, Alabama University, Andalusia High School, Anniston High School, Bessemer High School, Birmingham, Birmingham-Southern College, etc.—with as few capitals and as many abbreviations as possible. Normally the abbreviation "h.s." will be used to include superintendents and other supervisory officials, because their connection with the Association is through the secondary school of their system. Where, however, as in Birmingham, there are two or more secondary schools under such supervisory official, the name of the city will be used instead of the name of the high school. Furthermore, where the high school bears some local name different from that of the city, the name of the city will be used, followed by the name of the high school; for example, "Mobile, Murphy H.S." Colleges and private schools will be found listed alphabetically by names, and followed by their address, thus: "Tulane University, New Orleans."

Ordinary abbreviations for degrees and the institutions conferring them will be used. As between "A.M." and "M.A.," or "B.S." and "S.B.," this department will use what is reported by the individual furnishing the information, unless the editor happens to know personally that the institution reported prefers the other forms. *In cases of doubt this rule will be followed: for older coinages of degree names, A.B., A.M., Ph.D., M.D., LL.D., etc.; for modern coinages B.S., M.S., M.Ed., etc.*

The symbol (2) indicates the name of employee; (3) indicates academic degrees held, with name of institutions conferring them in each case; (4) indicates institutions at which employee has pursued further studies during period of his employment; (5) indicates different positions he has held in the institution or system and length of time in each (Public high schools will include in this report their superintendent and other supervisory officials, provided of course such officials have served twenty-five years, even though part of the service of such persons was in some other part of the school system, e.g., an elementary principalship or teaching position.); (6) indicates date at which service of employee began; (7) indicates present position

* The service of many, if not most, of these teachers and officials extends beyond the length of time their institutions have been members of the Association. Many of these persons, therefore, contributed materially in building up the standards of their schools to the point that they could win Association membership. Some names have been submitted of persons who began service with a school more than twenty-five years ago but worked elsewhere for a time and then returned to the school. The rule followed in such cases is this: if the service has been twenty-five years, exclusive of the time spent elsewhere, the name is included; otherwise the name is omitted.—Editor.

and when entered; (8) indicates any special comment; (9) indicates initials of person furnishing information.

Request for information as to all instructors and other employees of equivalent rank who had served twenty-five years or more went forward in May to all secondary schools and colleges of the Association. It is the present purpose of the QUARTERLY to publish such names as a regular feature of the autumn and winter numbers each year. Whenever you have names to add to the list, refer to page 394 of the QUARTERLY for November, 1938, and follow the form there given. Mark the information *Form A*, give the name of your institution, followed by the symbol (1) and the name of the employee you wish to honor in this way; then number the items of information as explained above (2), (3), . . . (9); *but be sure to sign in full the name of person furnishing the information.*

ALABAMA

ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, AUBURN: (2) FREDERIC CHILD BIGGIN; (3) BS in Arch., Cornell U.; MS, Lehigh U.; (5) hd prof. arch., 1916; dean, sch. arch., 1927; (6) 1916; (7) dean, sch. arch.; (8) fellow of Am. Inst. of Architects; member Ala. St. Art Commission; (9) lnd.

ALABAMA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, AUBURN: (2) REDDING STANCILL SUGG; (3) BS, DVM, Ala. Poly. Inst.; (4) N. C. St. Agric. Coll.; (5) instr. bacteriology, pathology, 1916-17; vet. corps, U. S. Army, 1917-19; ass't prof. bacteriology, pathology, 1919-28; exten. animal husbandman, 1928-30; prof., bacteriology, 1930-31; exten. animal husbandman, 1931-40; (6) 1916; (7) dean, sch. vet. med., state veterinarian, 1940; (8) co-author, extension circular, "Swine Production"; (9) lnd.

BIRMINGHAM, PHILLIPS H. S.: (2) EURA BARNETT; (3) PhB, U. Chicago; (5) Barker Sch., 1909-11; Powell Sch., 1911-17; Eng. t., Phillips H. S., 1922—; (6) 1909; (7) Eng. t., 1922; (8) sponsor of various student committees; (9) cjg.

BIRMINGHAM, PHILLIPS H. S.: (2) MARY FITZGERALD; (3) PhB, U. Chicago; (5) home ec. t., 1913—; (6) 1913; (7) home ec. t., 1913; (9) cjg.

BIRMINGHAM, RAMSEY H. S.: (2) JOHNNIE MAE CROSS; (3) AB, Randolph Macon Coll.; (4) Birmingham-Southern Coll., Howard Coll., Mass. Inst. Tech., U. Ala.; (5) Lakeview Sch., 1914-15; Central H. S., 1915-30; math t., Ramsay H. S., 1930—; (6) 1914; (7) math t., 1930; (8) chmn schedule committee of high school; (9) cjg.

BIRMINGHAM, WOODLAWN H. S.: (2) VIRGINIA MIXON; (3) AB, Birmingham-Southern Coll.; (4) U. Tenn., U. Chicago; (5) N. Birmingham Sch., 1912-13; Kennedy Sch., 1913-24; math. t., Woodlawn H. S., 1924—; (6) 1912; (7) math. t., 1924; (9) cjg.

MARION INSTITUTE, MARION: (2) LINTON HAMPTON BAER; (3) BS, U. Va.; (4) U. Va.; (5) prof. Eng., 12 yrs.; dean, 13 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) dean, 1928; (9) dmm.

SELMA, ALBERT G. PARRISH H. S.: (2) Harry Reid; (3) equivalent of BS, Liverpool, Eng.; (5) manual tr. t.; (6) 1913; (9) tmb.

STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, JACKSONVILLE: (2) Ethel Randolph; (3) BS, Columbia U.; AM, Peabody Coll.; (5) ass't prof. educ., supervisor of intermediate grades; (6) 1916; (9) cmd.

FLORIDA

FLORIDA STATE COLLEGE FOR WOMEN, TALLAHASSEE: (2) Mary Luella Richey; (3) AB, Ohio Wesleyan U.; AM, Ohio St. U.; CPA, State of Fla.; (4) Ohio St. U.; (5) instr. commerce, 1916-27; ass't prof. accounting, 1927—; (6) 1916; (7) ass't prof. accounting, 1927; (9) ec.

JACKSONVILLE, ROBERT E. LEE H. S.: (2) Elizabeth Venable; (4) Fla. St. Coll. for Women; (5) Eng. t., Duval H. S., 1910-27; Eng. t., Lee H. S., 1927—; (6) 1910; (9) jwg.

JACKSONVILLE, ROBERT E. LEE H. S.: (2) Ella Alice Dale; (3) AB, U. Kansas; (5) t., Duval H. S., 1914-17; prin., gra. sch., 1917-19; t., Duval H. S., 1919-27; Latin t., hd dep't, Lee H. S., 1927—; (6) 1914; (7) Latin t., hd dep't, 1927; (9) jwg.

JACKSONVILLE, ROBERT E. LEE H. S.: (2) Frank S. Wetzel; (3) BS, U. Chicago; (5) t., Duval H. S., 1916-27; sci. t., Lee H. S., 1927-28; prin., Jackson H. S., 1928-30; sci. supervisor, Jacksonville, 1930-31; hd sci. dep't, Lee H. S., 1931—; (6) 1916; (7) hd sci. dep't, 1931; (9) jwg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Georgia Borger; (3) AB, Lake City Inst.; BS, U. Chicago; (4) U. Chicago; (5) hd sci. dep't; (6) 1910; (7) hd sci. dep't, 1912; (9) vg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Belle Witter; (3) PhB, Alfred U.; (4) U. Tenn., Alfred U., Columbia Coll., U. Calif.; (5) gra. t., 14 yrs.; Latin t., 27 yrs.; (6) 1900; (7) 1915; (9) vg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Francis Joseph Christ; (3) dip., U. Dayton; (4) U. Dayton; (5) elem., jr. and sr. h. s. t., 26 yrs.; (7) h. s. t.. 1914; (9) vg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Clarence B. Morrill; (3) BL, AM, U. Mich.; (4) Tchrs Coll., Columbia U.; (5) hist. t., hd dep't; (6) 1914; (7) hd dep't, 1925; (8) organized hist. dep't, Hillsborough County Tchrs Federation; (9) vg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Edna M. Fisher; (3) AB, Columbia U.; (4) Peabody Coll., Columbia U., U. Chicago, Wm. and Mary Coll.; (5) t., 10 yrs.; hd lang. dep't, 15 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) hd dep't, 1926; (9) vg.

TAMPA, HILLSBOROUGH H. S.: (2) Elsie Hoyt; (3) AB, Swarthmore Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (4) Columbia U.; Harvard U.; (5) elem. sch. t., 6 yrs.; t., Hillsborough H. S., 12 yrs.; dean of girls, 17 yrs.; (6) 1905; (7) dean of girls, 1924; (9) vg.

U. OF FLORIDA, GAINESVILLE: (2) Raymond William Blacklock; (3) AB, Syracuse U.; (5) county ag't, 2 yrs.; ass't club ag't, 2 yrs.; state club ag't, 21 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) state club ag't, 1920; (9) rsj.

U. OF FLORIDA, GAINESVILLE: (2) Wilmon Newell; (3) BS, MS, Iowa St. Coll.; (5) plant commissioner, Fla. St. Plant Bd., 16 yrs.; dean, coll. agric., 17 yrs.; provost agric., 3 yrs.; (6) 1915; (7) plant commissioner, 1915; provost agric., 1938; (9) rsj.

U. OF FLORIDA, GAINESVILLE: (2) James William Norman; (3) AB, Mercer U.; AM, Harvard; PhD, Columbia U.; (4) Columbia U.; (5) prof. ed., 25 yrs.; dean, coll. ed., 21 yrs.; dir. summer session, 20 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) prof. ed., 1916; dean, coll. ed., 1920; dir. summer session, 1921; (9) rsj.

U. OF FLORIDA, GAINESVILLE: (2) G. C. Tillman; (3) MD, Emory U.; (4) U. Penna., Harvard U.; (5) univ. physician, 25 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) univ. physician, 1916; (9) rsj.

GEORGIA

BAINBRIDGE H. S.: (2) Isabel Wicker; (3) LI, St. Coll. for Women, Farmville, Va.; (4) Winthrop Coll., Farmville St. Coll. for Women, Asheville Normal Coll.; (5) hist. t., 25 yrs.; ass't prin., 5 yrs.; dean of girls, 20 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) hist. t., 1916; (9) egl.

BERRY SCHOOL, MOUNT BERRY: (2) C. Bernard Keim; (3) grad., Wooster Conservatory of Music; (5) dir. music, 25 yrs.; (6) 1910; (7) dir. music, 1910 (6 yrs. leave); (9) glg.

BRUNSWICK, GLYNN ACADEMY: (2) A. Jane Macon; (3) AB, AM, U. Ga.; (4) U. Ga., Columbia U.; (5) hd Eng. dep't, 30 yrs.; (6) 1911; (7) hd Eng. dep't, 1911; (9) hfl.

MACON, LANIER H. S. FOR BOYS: (2) William A. Bell; (3) AB, U. Ga.; (4) U. Ga.; (5) math. t.; (6) 1910; (9) jag.

MACON, LANIER H. S. FOR BOYS: (2) Richard J. Coates; (3) AB, Mercer U.; (4) Mercer U.; Columbia U.; (5) hd Eng. dep't; (6) 1902; (7) hd Eng. dep't; (9) jag.

MACON, LANIER H. S. FOR BOYS: (2) Louise Singleton; (3) Wesleyan Coll.; (4) Wesleyan Coll.; (5) hd commercial dep't; (6) 1899; (7) bookkeeping t.; (9) jag.

SAVANNAH H. S.: (2) Lila Cabaniss; (5) art t., 1908-26; art t., supervisor art in pub. schools, 1926—; (6) 1908; (7) art supervisor, 1926; (9) jav.

SAVANNAH H. S.: (2) Ira J. Gaines; (3) AB, Georgetown Coll.; AM, U. Chicago; (4) U. Chicago; (5) ass't in Latin, 1917-18; hd dep't Latin, 1918-38; hd dep't foreign lang., 1938—; (6) 1917; (7) hd dep't foreign lang., 1938; (9) jav.

SAVANNAH H. S.: (2) Florence Olmstead; (5) hist. t., 1904; Eng. t.; (6) 1904; (8) author of eight works of fiction; (9) jav.

U. OF GEORGIA, ATHENS: (2) Walter Clinton Burkhart; (3) DVM, Ohio St. U.; BS, U. Ga.; (4) U. Ga.; (5) instr. veterinary div., 1916-17; adj. prof., 1917-18; U. S. army, 1918-19; ass't prof., 1919; asso. prof., 1919-28; prof., 1928-32; prof. bacteriology, 1932—; (6) 1916; (7) prof. bacteriology, 1932; (9) llh.

U. OF GEORGIA, ATHENS: (2) William Olin Collins; (3) BSA, U. Ga.; (5) instr. soil chem., 1916-18; U. S. army, 1918-19; adj. prof., 1919-23; asso. prof., 1923-27; prof., 1927-31; asso. prof., 1931-36; prof., 1936—; act. hd dep't agronomy, 1938—; (6) 1916; (7) prof., act. hd dep't agronomy; (9) llh.

U. OF GEORGIA, ATHENS: (2) Austin Southwick Edwards; (3) BS, Columbia U.; AM, U. Minn.; PhD, Cornell U.; (5) ass't prof., 1916-17; U. S. army, 1917-19; prof. psychol., 1919—; hd dep't, 1916—; (6) 1916; (7) prof. psychol., hd dep't; (9) llh.

U. OF GEORGIA, ATHENS: (2) Edith Guill; (3) BS, Peabody Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (5) ass't prof., 1914-33; asso. prof., 1933; instr., 1933—; (6) 1914; (7) instr. phys. ed., 1933; (9) llh.

U. OF GEORGIA, ATHENS: (2) Horace Bonar Ritchie; (3) AB, AM, U. Ga.; (4) U. Chicago, Ohio St. U., U. Ga.; (5) dean, prof. ed., 1915-32; prof. ed., 1933—; (6) 1915; (7) prof. ed., 1915; (9) llh.

YOUNG HARRIS JR. COLLEGE, YOUNG HARRIS: (2) W. S. Mann; (3) AB, Young Harris Coll.; (4) U. Ga.; (5) math. t., 34 yrs.; (6) 1893-1908, 1922-41; (7) math. t.; (9) wsm.

KENTUCKY

HICKMAN P. S.: (2) J. M. Calvin; (3) AM, Peabody Coll.; (5) supt., 1916; (9) jmc.

TRANSYLVANIA COLLEGE, LEXINGTON: (2) Ernest Woodruff Delcamp; (3) AB, AM, Transylvania Coll.; PhD, U. Chicago; (4) U. Chicago; (5) instr. Latin, 1908-16; ass't prof., 1916-18; prof., 1918-25; prof. classical lang., 1925-34; prof. Eng. lit., 1934—; (6) 1908; (7) prof. Eng. lit., 1934; (9) gvm.

TRANSYLVANIA COLLEGE, LEXINGTON: (2) Edward Saxon; (3) grad. Boston Sch. of Expression; (5) instr. expression, 1914-36; prof., 1936-38; ass't prof., 1938—; (6) 1914; (7) ass't prof., 1938; (8) written and produced a number of plays; (9) gvm.

U. OF KENTUCKY, LEXINGTON: (2) John Sherman Horine; (3) BME, ME, U. Ky.; (5) instr. steam engin., 1910-12; ass't prof. engin. drawing, 1913-26; asso. prof., 1927—; (6) 1910; (7) asso. prof., 1927; (9) lmc.

U. OF KENTUCKY, LEXINGTON: (2) Howard Herman Jewett; (3) AB, Ohio Wesleyan U.; AM, Ohio St. U.; (5) ass't entomologist, 1911-12; research ass't entomologist, botanist, 1912—; (6) 1911; (9) lmc.

U. OF KENTUCKY, LEXINGTON: (2) McHenry Rhoads; (3) AB, AM, W. Ky. Coll.; LLD, Georgetown Coll.; (4) Columbia U.; (5) prof. educ., h. s. inspector, 1911-24; state supt. of public instr., 1924-28; prof. emeritus, 1929—; (6) 1911; (7) prof. emeritus educ.; (9) lmc.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Andrew P. Dustin; (3) AB, U. Louisville; (5) ass't prof. anc. lang., 1916-29; asso. prof., 1929-35; retired, 1935-41; (6) 1916; (7) ass't in library, 1941; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Louis R. Edleston; (3) PhG, Louisville Coll. of Pharmacy, MD, Ky. U. Med. Dept., U. Louisville; (5) instr. pharmacy, 1906-11; ass't syphilology, 1919-23; clinical instr. dermatology, 1923-36; clinical asso., 1936-39; (6) 1906; (7) ass't clinical prof., 1939—; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Guy P. Grigsby; (3) MD, U. Louisville; (5) adj. prof. abdominal surgery, gynecology, 1912-23; ass't clinical prof., 1923-24; ass't clinical prof., 1927-38; (6) 1912; (7) ass't clinical prof. obstetrics, gynecology, 1938; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Walter I. Hume; (3) MD, U. Louisville; (5) ass't in surgery, 1916-23; clinical instr., 1923-27; ass't clinical prof., 1927-35; (6) 1916; (7) asso. clinical prof., 1935; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Austin Ralph Middleton; (3) AB, PhD, Johns Hopkins U.; (5) prof. biol., 1916—; (6) 1916; (7) prof. biol., 1916; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) Orville Ray Miller; (3) MD, U. Louisville; (5) ass't in anatomy, 1916-17; ass't orthopedic surgery, 1916-23; clinical instr., 1923-27; (6) 1916; (7) ass't clinical prof., 1927; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) John J. Moren; (3) MD, Louisville Med. Coll., Hospital Coll. of Med.; (5) prof. neurology; (7) prof. emeritus, 1940; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) James H. Pritchett; (3) MD, U. Louisville; (5) interne, 1911-12; ass't dep't pediatrics, 1912-17; adj. prof., 1917-23; ass't clinical prof., 1923-35; (6) 1911; (7) asso. clinical prof., 1935-41; (9) rak.

U. OF LOUISVILLE: (2) R. L. Woodard; (3) MD, U. Louisville; (5) out-patient dep't surgery, 1916; clinical ass't orthopedic surgery, 1922-30; (6) 1916; (7) ass't clinical prof., 1930; (9) rak.

WESTERN KENTUCKY ST. TCHRS. COLL., BOWLING GREEN: (2) H. M. Yarbrough; (3) AB, AM, PhD, Indiana U.; (4) Indiana U.; (5) instr., asso. prof. math., 1915-30; prof., hd dep't, 1930—; (6) 1915; (9) cmg.

LOUISIANA

LOUISIANA COLLEGE, PINEVILLE: (2) William Strother; (3) AB, Louisiana Coll.; (4) La. St. U., U. Chicago, Tulane U.; (5) dean of academy, 1916-22; prof. soc. sci., 1922—; (6) 1916; (7) prof. soc. sci., 1922; (9) hmw.

LOUISIANA COLLEGE, PINEVILLE: (2) William Pierce Carson; (3) AB, Furman U.; PhB, AM, U. Chicago; PhD, Columbia U.; (4) Columbia U.; (5) hd Eng. dep't, 1916; (6) 1916; (9) hmw.

ST. GABRIEL H. S.: (2) John Leslie Harbourt; (3) AB, La. St. U.; (4) La. St. U.; (5) prin., gra. sch., 3 yrs.; h. s., 25 yrs.; (6) 1913; (7) prin. St. Gabriel H. S., 1916; (9) jlh.

MISSISSIPPI

MISSISSIPPI SOUTHERN COLL., HATTIESBURG: (2) Alma Hickman; (3) AB, Miss. St. Coll. for Women; AM, U. Chicago; (4) U. Calif., U. Colo.; (5) prof. Eng., 1916; (9) mp.

MISSISSIPPI SOUTHERN COLL., HATTIESBURG: (2) Emily Peyton Jones; (3) BS, Miss. St. Coll. for Women., AM, Columbia U.; (4) U. Calif.; (5) prof. ed., 1916; (9) mp.

TUPELO H. S.: (2) Kate Kincannon; (3) AB, Miss. St. Coll. for Women; (4) U. Chicago, Columbia U.; (5) hd hist. dep't; (6) 1912; (9) tmm.

NORTH CAROLINA

PEACE JUNIOR COLLEGE, RALEIGH: (2) May McLelland; (3) AB, Queens Coll.; BS, MS, N. C. St. Coll.; (4) N. C. St. Coll.; (5) dean, Bible t.; (6) 1916; (9) wcp.

PEACE JUNIOR COLLEGE, RALEIGH: (2) Winifred Kuhns; (3) AB, Randolph Macon Coll.; BS, Geo. Washington U.; MS, N. C. St. Coll.; (4) New York U.; N. C. St. Coll.; (5) Latin t.; hd math. dep't; (6) 1916; (9) wcp.

U. OF NORTH CAROLINA, CHAPEL HILL: (2) Gustave Adolphus Harrer; (3) AB, AM, PhD, Princeton U.; (5) instr. Latin, 1915-18; ass't

prof., 1918-21; asso. prof., 1921-25; prof., 1925-34; Kenan prof., 1934—; (6) 1915; (7) Kenan prof. Latin, 1934; (9) tjw.

U. OF NORTH CAROLINA, CHAPEL HILL: (2) Samuel Huntington Hobbs, Jr.; (3) AB, AM, U. N. C.; PhD, U. Wisc.; (4) U. Wisc.; (5) instr. rural econ., sociol., 1916-19; ass't prof., 1919-23; asso. prof., 1923-30; prof. rural social-econ., 1930; (6) 1916; (9) tjw.

U. OF NORTH CAROLINA, CHAPEL HILL: (2) William Whatley Pierson; (3) AB, AM, U. Ala.; AM, PhD, Columbia; (5) instr. hist., 1915-17; ass't prof., 1917-18; asso. prof., 1918-20; prof. hist., gov't, 1920-35; prof. polit. sci., hist., 1935—; act. dean grad. sch., 1929-30; dean grad. sch., 1930—; (6) 1915; (7) prof. hist., polit. sci., dean grad. sch.; (9) tjw.

WILMINGTON, NEW HANOVER H. S.: (2) Reba J. Myers; (4) U. N. C., Asheville Normal Sch.; (5) t., Delgado Sch.; prin., Delgado Sch.; t., act. prin., Tileston Sch.; t., h. s.; (6) 1901; (7) 1927; (9) tth.

SOUTH CAROLINA

COKER COLLEGE, HARTSVILLE: (2) Caroline M. Reaves; (3) AB, Winthrop Coll.; AM, U. Okla.; (4) U. Okla., U. Tenn., U. Calif., Cornell U., Columbia U.; (5) prof. math., hd dep't, 25 yrs.; (6) 1916; (9) csg.

GREENWOOD H. S.: (2) Emma Andrews; (3) AB, Lander College; (4) Winthrop Coll., Peabody Coll., U. Tenn.; (5) gra. t., 8 yrs.; h. s. t., 22 yrs.; (6) 1910; (7) math. t., 1918; (9) web.

GREENWOOD H. S.: (2) W. E. Black; (3) AB, AM, Davidson; (4) U. S. C., Davidson; (5) prin., 1911-19; supt., 1919—; (6) 1911; (7) supt., 1919; (9) web.

COLUMBIA H. S.: (2) May R. Bookman; (3) AB, AM, U. S. C.; (4) Winthrop Coll.; Middlebury; (5) elem. sch. t., 1 yr.; h. s. t., 36 yrs.; (6) 1904; (7) h. s. t., 1905; (9) erc.

COLUMBIA H. S.: (2) Francenia C. Brennen; (3) AB, Winthrop Coll.; AM, U. S. C.; (4) U. Tenn., Winthrop Coll., U. Va., Columbia U., U. Chicago, New York U., Middlebury, U. S. C.; (5) elem. t., 5 yrs.; h. s. t., 31 yrs.; (6) 1905; (7) h. s. t., 1910; (9) erc.

COLUMBIA H. S.: (2) Eva Ellerbe; (3) AB, Columbia Coll.; BM, Va. Coll.; AM, U. S. C.; (4) St. Normal, Asheville, N. C., U. Va., Columbia U.; (5) Latin, math., t., hd Latin dep't; (6) 1914; (9) erc.

COLUMBIA H. S.: (2) Hannah Wingard; (3) AB, Columbia Coll.; AM, U. S. C.; (4) U. S. C., William and Mary Coll.; (5) sci. t.; (6) 1914; (9) erc.

FURMAN UNIVERSITY, GREENVILLE: (2) Lawrence Henry Bowen; (3) AB, Furman U.; AM, U. Chicago; PhD, Cornell U.; (4) U. Chicago,

Cornell U.; (5) instr., 1916-17; ass't prof., 1917-23; asso. prof., 1923-38; prof., 1938—; (6) 1916; (7) prof., hd math. dep't, 1938; (9) rnd.

TENNESSEE

MIDDLE TENNESSEE ST. TCHRS. COLLEGE, MURFREESBORO: (2) Bettie Murfree; (5) ass't librarian; (6) 1911; (9) ncb.

NASHVILLE, HUME-FOGG H. S.: (2) Helen Frankland; (3) BS, Vanderbilt U.; (4) Vanderbilt U., Peabody Coll., Columbia U., New York U.; (5) commercial t., 25 yrs.; (6) 1916; (9) wab.

NASHVILLE, WEST END H. S.: (2) Ella Haiman; (3) AB, Peabody Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (4) Peabody Coll.; (5) Eng. t., 31 yrs.; (6) 1909; Eng. t., 1937; (9) wab.

NASHVILLE, WEST END H. S.: (2) Inez Tolmie; (3) AB, Price's Coll.; (4) Cincinnati Conservatory of Music, International Sch. of Grand Opera, Milan, Italy; (5) Eng. t., 29 yrs.; (6) 1912; Eng. t., 1937; (9) wab.

VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE: (2) Charles Madison Sarratt; (3) AB, Cornell U.; AM, Syracuse U.; (5) ass't prof. math., 1916-22; asso. prof., 1922-24; prof., 1924—; dean of men, 1922—; dean of students, 1940—; (6) 1916; (7) prof., hd math. dep't; dean of students; (9) fcp.
WEST TENNESSEE ST. TCHRS. COLLEGE, MEMPHIS: (2) Marie McCormack; (5) instr. art, 26 yrs.; (6) 1915; (9) rcj.

WARD-BELMONT SCHOOL, NASHVILLE: (2) Louise Gordon; (4) Peabody Coll., Chicago Sch. Applied Art, New York Sch. Fine and Applied Art; (5) ass't in art, 1914—; (6) 1914; (7) ass't in art, 1914; (9) jeb.

TEXAS

AGRIC. AND MECH. COLLEGE OF TEXAS, COLLEGE STATION: (2) R. E. Karper; (3) BS, Kansas St. Coll.; MS, Agric. and Mech. Coll. of Texas; (5) supt. Texas sub-sta., 1915-25; ass't dir., agronomist, Texas agric. exper. sta., 1925-27; vice dir., agronomist, 1927-40; agronomist, 1940—; (6) 1915; (7) agronomist, Texas Agric. Exper. Sta., 1940; (8) largely responsible for introduction, development, and improvement of grain sorghums in Texas; developed strain of disease resistant milo; (9) ejh.

AGRIC. AND MECH. COLLEGE OF TEXAS, COLLEGE STATION: (2) Elbert Brunner Reynolds; (3) BS, Okla. A. & M. Coll., MS, Iowa St. Coll.; (4) Iowa St. Coll.; (5) instr. agronomy, 1915-17; ass't prof., 1917-18; agronomist, supt. exper. sta., 1918-20; agronomist, 1920-23; chief, div. agronomy Texas agric. exper. sta., 1923—; (6) 1915; (7) chief, div. agronomy, 1923; (8) research in soil fertility; (9) ejh.

CONROE H. S.: (2) Hulon N. Anderson; (3) BS, AM, Sam Houston St. Tchrs. Coll.; (4) U. Texas; (5) supt., 33 yrs.; (6) 1908; (8) under his administration, the system has grown from a five-teacher school to nine buildings with over 100 teachers; (9) mjv.

CONROE H. S.: (2) Mrs. Clara Knight; (3) BS, Sam Houston St. Tchrs. Coll.; (5) pri. t., jr. h. s. t., sr. h. s. t.; (6) 1906; (7) soc. studies t.; (9) mjv.

FORT WORTH, POLYTECHNIC H. S.: (2) Mrs. Lois M. Gunn; (3) PhB, U. Chicago; (4) U. Wisc., Univ. Calif., U. Colo., Coll. of Indus. Arts; (5) home ec. t., North Side H. S., 8 yrs.; Jennings Ave. Jr. H. S., 14 yrs.; Polytechnic H. S., 3 yrs.; (6) 1912; (7) home ec. t., 1938; (9) jpm.

HARDIN-SIMMONS UNIVERSITY, ABILENE: (2) David W. Arnette; AB, AM, Wake Forest Coll.; (4) U. Colo., U. Texas; (5) prof. biol., 27 yrs.; (6) 1914; (7) prof. biol,, 1914; (9) jab.

HOUSTON, MILBY SENIOR H. S.: (2) W. I. Stevenson; (3) AB, Texas Christian U.; AM, Texas U.; (4) U. Okla., Colo. Tchrs. Coll.; (5) prin.; (6) 1910; (7) prin., 1925; (9) wis.

HOUSTON, SAM HOUSTON H. S.: (2) Emma Duvernoy; (5) registrar, 28 yrs.; tchr., 21 yrs.; (6) 1891; (7) registrar, 1912; (9) wsb.

HOUSTON, SAM HOUSTON H. S.: (2) R. J. Jung; (3) AB, U. Texas; (4) Sam Houston St. Tchrs. Coll., U. Minn.; (5) tchr., 32 yrs.; (6) 1908; (7) tchr., 1908; (9) wsb.

JOHN TARLETON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, STEPHENVILLE: (2) S. F. Davis; (3) BSA, Agric. & Mech. Coll. of Texas; MS, U. Colo.; (4) U. Colo., U. Texas, U. Wisc.; (5) hd dep't agric., sci., 1916-17; hd dep't chem., physics, biol., 1917-19; hd dep't chem., physics, 1919-22; (6) 1915; (7) prof. chem., hd dep't, 1922; (9) wcn.

JOHN TARLETON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, STEPHENVILLE: (2) George O. Ferguson; (3) AB, U. Texas; AM, U. Chicago; (4) U. Chicago; (5) asso. dean, hd dep't hist., mod. lang., 1913-17; hd dep't sociology, econ., hist., 1917-20; asso. dean, registrar, 1920-24; asso. dean, hd dep't econ., sociology, journalism, 1924-41; (6) 1913; (7) prof. econ., sociology, asso. dean, 1920; (9) wcn.

JOHN TARLETON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, STEPHENVILLE: (2) C. H. Hale; (3) AB, BS, AM, Texas Christian U.; (4) Texas Christian U.; (5) asso. prof. math., 1914-30; (6) 1914; (7) prof. ed., 1930; (9) wcn.

LONGVIEW H. S.: (2) Mrs. J. V. Rasson; (4) U. Texas, W. Texas St. Tchrs. Coll., U. Colo.; (5) elem. t., 3 yrs.; h. s. t., 1913—; (6) 1912; (7) dean women, study hall dir.; (9) hlf.

LUFKIN P. S.: (2) I. A. Coston; (3) AB, U. Texas; (4) Stephen F. Austin Coll., U. Texas; (5) supt. schools, 25 yrs.; (6) 1917; (7) supt., 1917; (9) iac.

NORTH TEXAS ST. TCHRS. COLL., DENTON: (2) Benjamin Bee Harris; (3) BS, A. & M. Coll. of S. C.; MS, Ohio St. U.; PhD, U. Texas; (5) instr. agric., biol., 1916-23; dir., prof. biol., 1924-34; dean of coll., dir., prof. biol., 1934—; (6) 1916; (7) dean of coll., 1934; (8) inaugurated collegiate instruction in conservation of natural resources; (9) kh.

NORTH TEXAS ST. TCHRS. COLL., DENTON: (2) W. Joseph McConnell; (3) AB, AM, U. Denver; PhD, Columbia U.; (5) asso. prof. math., 1916-19; prof., dir. econ., 1919-23; dean of coll., prof., dir. econ., 1923-34; president, 1934—; (6) 1916; (7) president, 1934; (8) Graduate Division inaugurated during his administration; (9) kh.

NORTH TEXAS ST. TCHRS. COLL., DENTON: (2) Bessie L. Shook; (3) AB, AM, U. Texas; (5) asso. prof. Eng., 25 yrs.; (6) 1916; (9) kh.

SAM HOUSTON STATE TEACHERS COLL., HUNTSVILLE: (2) Charles Oran Stewart; (3) AB, U. Neb.; AM, U. Mo.; PhD, U. Sou. Calif.; (4) U. Sou. Calif.; (5) Eng., lang., 1916-20; prof., hd dep't Eng. and lang., 1921—; (6) 1916; (8) arrangement and maintenance of formal commencement; (9) mr.

SEGUIN H. S.: (2) Joe F. Saegert; (3) AB, AM, U. Texas; (4) U. Texas; (5) h. s. prin., Eng., hist., Ger. t., 1909-14; supt. schools, Eng., Ger., civics, econ., algebra t., 1920—; (6) 1909; (7) 1920; (8) during his superintendency, buildings have been constructed and the system enlarged from 10 to 12 grades; (9) ajb.

SHERMAN H. S.: (2) Pearl Dial; (3) AB, W. Texas St. Tchrs. Coll.; (4) N. Texas St. Tchrs. Coll., Sull Ross St. Tchrs. Coll., U. Ark.; U. Texas, Kid Key Coll., Austin Coll.; (5) elem. sch. t., 20 yrs.; Eng. t., h. s., 8 yrs.; (6) 1912; (7) 1932; (9) bd.

SHERMAN H. S.: (2) Elma Lee Knox; (3) AB, U. Colo.; (4) U. Colo.; (5) elem. sch. t., 15 yrs.; math. t., 12 yrs.; (6) 1913; (7) 1928; (9) bd.

SOUTHERN METHODIST U., DALLAS: (2) John H. McGinnis; (3) AB, LittD, Valley Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (5) asso. prof. Eng., 1915-16; prof. Eng., 1916—; (6) 1915; (7) prof. Eng., 1916; (8) editor, *Southwest Review;* (9) fds.

SOUTHERN METHODIST U., DALLAS: (2) John Strayer McIntosh; (3) AB, AM, Cornell U.; PhD, Chicago U.; (5) ass't prof. classics, 1915-16; prof., 1916—; (6) 1915; (7) prof. classics, 1916; (9) fds.

SOUTHERN METHODIST U., DALLAS: (2) Samuel Alexander Myatt; (3) AB, AM, Vanderbilt U.; (5) asso. prof. Spanish, 1915-17; prof., 1918—; (6) 1915; (7) prof. Spanish, 1918; (9) fds.

SOUTHERN METHODIST U., DALLAS: (2) Alvin Daniel Schuessler; (3) AB, BD, Central Wesleyan Coll.; AM, Northwestern U.; PhD, U. Mich.; (5) prof. German, 1915—; business manager, 1920-24; (6) 1915; (7) prof. German, 1915; (9) fds.

SOUTHERN METHODIST U., DALLAS: (2) Ellis William Shuler; (3) AB, Emory and Henry, AM, Vanderbilt U.; PhD, Harvard U.; (5) asso. prof. geol., 1915-16; prof., 1916—; dean, grad. sch., 1926—; (6) 1916; (7) prof. geol., 1916; dean, grad. sch., 1926; (9) fds.

TEXAS CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY, FORT WORTH: (2) Edward McShane Waits; (3) AB, LLD, Transylvania Coll.; (5) president, 25 yrs.; (6) 1916; (7) president emeritus, 1941; (8) during his administration the endowment has been increased, the plant and faculty enlarged; (9) swh.

VIRGINIA

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY, WILLIAMSBURG: (2) Donald W. Davis; (3) AB, PhD, Harvard U.; (4) John Innes Horticultural Inst., England; (5) prof. biol., 1916—; (6) 1916; (9) jhb.

DANVILLE, GEORGE WASHINGTON H. S.: (2) Grace F. Bagley; (3) AB, Randolph-Macon Woman's Coll.; (4) U. Va., U. Chicago; (5) math. t.; (6) 1908; math t., hd dep't; (9) fwg.

FORK UNION MILITARY ACADEMY, FORT UNION: (2) Edwin Judson Snead; (3) AB, U. Richmond; (4) U. Va.; (5) math. instr., 25 yrs.; (6) 1915; (7) instr. math., 1915; (9) njp.

FORK UNION MILITARY ACADEMY, FORT UNION: (2) Nathaniel James Perkins; (3) AB, Denison U.; (4) U. Va.; (5) instr., 1916-17; dean, act. pres., 1917-18; pres., 1918-30; headmaster, 1930-41; (6) 1916; (7) headmaster, 1930; (9) njp.

LYNCHBURG COLLEGE, LYNCHBURG: (2) J. T. T. Hundley; (3) AB, Bethany Coll.; DD, Wash. & Lee U.; (5) act. pres., 1914-15; pres., 1915-36; pres. emeritus, financial representative, 1936—; (6) 1914; (7) pres. emeritus, 1936; (8) endowment increased during his administration; (9) rbm.

MADISON COLLEGE, HARRISONBURG: (2) Mrs. Pearl P. Moody; (3) BS, Peabody Coll.; AM, Tchrs. Coll., Columbia U.; (6) 1916; (7) prof. home ec.; (9) spd.

RANDOLPH-MACON COLLEGE, ASHLAND: (2) Samuel Claiborne Hatcher; (3) DD; (5) vice pres., sec., treas., 1911—; act. pres., 1938-39; (6) 1911; (7) vice pres., sec., treas., 1911; (8) outstanding administrative work; (9) mjm.

RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE, LYNCHBURG: (2) Aileen McKall Bond; (5) instr. piano, 1903-25; adj. prof., 1925—; (6) 1903; (7) adj. prof. piano, 1925; (9) mm.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) Maude Calfee; (3) AB, Martha Washington Coll.; (4) Duke U., U. Va.; (5) Eng., Bible t.; (6) 1910; Bible t., 31 yrs.; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) Mary Sully Hayward; (3) AB, Hollins Coll.; AM, Columbia U.; (4) Radford St. Tchrs. Coll.; (5) Eng. t., 26 yrs.; hd Eng. dep't, 12 yrs.; (6) 1915; (7) hd Eng. dep't, 1929; (8) adviser of student magazine, chairman of commencement programs; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) George A. Layman; (3) AB, Manchester Coll.; AM, Princeton U.; (4) U. Va.; (5) hd hist. dep't, 21 yrs.; ass't prin., 11 yrs.; (6) 1913; (7) hd hist. dep't, 1920; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) Sallie Lovelace; (3) sp. certif. in Latin, Randolph-Macon Coll.; (4) Roanoke Coll., U. Va.; (5) Latin t., 31 yrs.; Fr. t., 1 yr.; hd Latin dep't, 9 yrs.; (6) 1909; (7) hd Latin dep't, 1932; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) D. E. McQuilkin; (3) AB, AM, W. Va. U.; AM, Harvard U.; (5) instr. Eng., math., 3 yrs.; prin., 6 yrs.; supt., 23 yrs.; (6) 1909; (7) supt., 1918; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) W. E. Parsons; (3) AB, AM, W. Va. U.; (4) W. Va. U.; U. Va.; (5) instr. sci., 13 yrs.; prin. h. s., 17 yrs.; ass't supt., 6 yrs.; (6) 1905; (7) ass't supt., 1935; (9) jdr.

ROANOKE, JEFFERSON SENIOR H. S.: (2) Roberta Rutherfoord; (4) Cornell U., Columbia U., Roanoke Coll., U. Va., Peabody Coll., Harvard U.; (5) Fr., hist. t., 29 yrs.; (6) 1912; (7) Fr., hist. t.; (9) jdr.

VIRGINIA INTERMONT COLLEGE, BRISTOL: (2) Ethel J. McCoy; (3) BL, Syracuse U.; (5) hist. t.; (6) 1916; (7) hd hist. dep't; (8) sponsor Y. W. C. A.; (9) hgn.

VIRGINIA INTERMONT COLLEGE, BRISTOL: (2) H. G. Noffsinger; (3) AB, AM, LittD, U. Richmond; LLD, King Coll.; (5) president; (6) 1912; (7) president, 1912; (9) hgn.

VIRGINIA INTERMONT COLLEGE, BRISTOL: (2) Rhoda L. Nunnally; (3) AB; (4) U. Vt., New York U., Penn. Coll. for Women, Am. Academy of Dramatic Art; (5) hd dramatic dep't; (6) 1916; (7) hd dep't dramatic art; (9) hgn.

VIRGINIA INTERMONT COLLEGE, BRISTOL: (2) Marguerite Pflug; (3) AM, John B. Stetson; AM, Columbia U.; (4) Columbia U.; (5)

dean of faculty; hd dep't lang.; instr. swimming, riding; (6) 1916; (7) dean, hd dep't lang.; (9) hgn.

VIRGINIA INTERMONT COLLEGE, BRISTOL: (2) Mabel Morris Schroetter; (3) AB, (4) U. Sou. Calif.; (5) voice t.; hd dep't voice; (6) 1912; (7) hd dep't voice; (9) hgn.

U. OF VIRGINIA, CHARLOTTESVILLE: (2) R. Bennett Bean; (3) BS, Va. Poly. Inst.; MD, Johns Hopkins U.; (4) Ecole de Medecin, Paris; (5) prof. anatomy; (9) rbb.

U. OF VIRGINIA, CHARLOTTESVILLE: (2) George B. Eager, Jr.; (3) AB, LLB, U. Va.; (4) U. Wisc.; (5) adj. prof., 1911-15; asso. prof., 1915-16; prof. law, 1916—; ass't dean law sch., 1926-37; (6) 1911; (7) prof. law, 1916; (9) gbe.

U. OF VIRGINIA, CHARLOTTESVILLE: (2) Llewellyn Griffith Hoxton; (3) BS, AB, AM, U. Va.; PhD, Johns Hopkins U.; (5) adj. prof., 3 yrs.; asso. prof., 7 yrs.; prof., chmn dep't physics, 25 yrs.; (6) 1906; (7) 1916; (9) lgh.

"Interpreting the Spirit of Democracy": An Open Forum for all Interested Members

As announced in the May number, President Sam H. Whitley outlined a forum on "Interpreting of the Spirit of Democracy" as follows:

1. By the Family;
2. By Labor;
3. By Industry;
4. By the Press;
5. By the Schools;
6. By Religion;
7. By Politics.

Contributions of about a thousand words were requested in the May QUARTERLY from any interested person in the Southern Association. By way of suggestion the following questions were posed:

> In which one of the areas enumerated do you find the spirit of democracy best interpreted today? What opportunity for better expressing democracy exists in this area that you do not think has been exploited as fully as it might? Suggest how you think this opportunity may be used.
>
> In which of the suggested areas do you think democracy has been most poorly interpreted? How would you suggest that this poor interpretation be remedied? Can you suggest circumstances in which your ideas have been carried out?

The following articles have been submitted in response to this request. Other contributions will be printed in the November QUARTERLY.

The Family and Democracy

By J. E. GRIFFIN
History Teacher, High School of Charleston, South Carolina

Many are the media that may be used in "interpreting the spirit of democracy"; and legion are the individuals, clubs, and organizations that may motivate these media. The position of greatest strategic value, however, is held by the family.

The family is the key to society, religion, and everything else. Perfect families, if they were possible, would mean virtually perfect citizenship, perfect democracy, and perfect attitudes towards society in general; for the greatest possession of a family is its children, and its greatest service to its

children, state, and nation is to endeavor to train these children so that they will develop into as nearly perfect adults, physically, mentally, and morally, as is humanly possible. Perhaps, then, an all-wise parenthood should be our goal.

Each Monday during the football season a coach calls the members of his team to discuss the good points and the mistakes that were made in the previous game. Parents, it seems to me, may well follow this procedure in solving the problems of the individual members of the family. Such a family "huddle" would afford each member of the family an opportunity to contribute to the discussion and solution of a problem. The individuals would have greater confidence in the correctness of the solution on account of having understood the reasons for such a decision; and this should tend towards greater self discipline and determination in abiding by the policies thus formulated.

The family conference, which may be held at a regular time each day, embodies many of the elements of democracy: the equality of the individual is recognized and tends to become axiomatic; the different views expressed, and the kindly attitude of the others towards the one expressing those views, promote tolerance and respect for the dignity of the human soul; and this coöperative undertaking develops loyalty and team work. Ethics, character, and a knowledge of psychology are bound to come from such a discussion by the family group.

A child should be taught, if possible, to earn what he gets. Tasks around the house may be assigned to him for which a regular payment is made each week. If extra money is desired, it should require extra effort. A child soon learns that he must earn what he receives and he begins to acquire the valuable habit of budgeting his money. And the assignment of such tasks to him develops a sense of responsibility.

The story is told of how the five fine, wholesome Rockefeller sons grew up at their country home on the Hudson. There was a method by which each earned his spending money. A sum was paid for each rat that was caught in the attic, and additional money could be earned by catching additional rats. A young friend who was visiting them, surprised at their modest boat, asked why they did not get a better one, whereupon, one of the Rockefeller sons is said to have exclaimed, "Why, you must think we are the Vanderbilts!"

Such training, of course, requires highly intelligent parents. Why not discussion groups of parents that would be somewhat analogous and complementary of the family group for the discussion of family problems? What better work could a parent-teacher organization sponsor than this?

The school, important as it is, and all other institutions can only be complementary to the incalculable training that it is possible for the home to

provide in "interpreting the spirit of democracy." Perhaps the objective of the school should be to train for the responsibilities of parenthood, with all that the word "parenthood" implies.

Interpreting the Spirit of Democracy: By the Schools

By G. D. Humphrey
President, Mississippi State College

The public schools interpret democracy better than any of the other areas suggested for the simple reason that all classes, regardless of their social, economic, and political background, mingle together as students in the public schools and are given the same privileges and opportunities.

The schools are the expression of the democratic idea of giving to the next generation better opportunities than the present generation possesses. The principles of democracy can be better developed by making schools more functional in the life of the community; that is, by making them the center of community life. This idea has not been stressed as much as it should have been. The experimental schools now being operated on the plan of community center are proving to be very successful and popular.

Each state should develop teacher-training institutions which have the philosophy of democracy as the major objective in their teaching programs. There should also be a group of trained supervisors working from the teacher-training institutions in county and intra-state regional workshops in order to provide in-service training and supervision.

Interpreting the Spirit of Democracy: By Religion and By the Schools

By Walton Hinds
Superintendent, Galena Park, Texas

A larger percentage of the people of the United States can be and are reached by the schools and churches than any other organizations that are in existence today. The home could be a greater influence upon the coming generations for the good of democracy than any other agency, but the parents must first be educated to a realization of this possibility by outside influences. A child begins his formal education at the age of six years, but we must take into consideration the fact that he learns more during those first six years than during any other six years of his life and possibly more than all the remainder of his life.

If we can accept the statements above as an hypothesis, we have a basis for further reasoning; that is, that the churches and schools should work together on what they consider to be a true interpretation of the Spirit of

Democracy. Then each of these organizations should definitely settle upon the function which it can properly carry out.

Let us take the church first and examine the relation and similarity of its teachings to those of a democratic system of government. The Bible is the basis of democracy. The Protestant churches took the Bible as a guide and set up democracy in their organizations. Then these same people began to carry over these democratic principles into their government. In fact the government of a nation is actually a reflection of the real religious state of that nation. They are as nearly one and the same thing as any two independent organizations could possibly be. Christ taught that God is Spirit and that He must be worshiped in spirit and in truth. Democracy is spirit and must be worshiped or observed in spirit and in truth. "Do unto others as you would that they should do unto you" is the fundamental precept upon which religion and democracy are based. The spirit of democracy demands that a man be given justice in this world and a justice so meted out that he participates in dealing out that justice to himself. He is also obligated to participate in the affairs of democracy to such an extent as to see that everyone else is dealt with justly. That is the spirit of religion also, except that democracy has only earthly ends while religion has heavenly ends. The churches can give recognition to these truths, which are common between their ideals and those of democracy.

Now taking the school and the part it should play in the interpretation of the spirit of democracy. Between the church and the school, the school has the more difficult job of the two. The school must participate in showing the relation between religion and democracy and also take actual steps to acquaint the child with practical experiences in democratic living which will make democracy an actual living thing within his consciousness.

It is a very difficult task to inculcate into a child the spirit of democracy. Our national economy has so adversely affected the individual welfare of our people in the last decade that the group attitudes toward the present workings of democracy have become very sordid. We have all this to overcome in the schools. The theory of democracy is a beautiful thing, but its actual workings leave a young person very disillusioned. We must show our school children that democracy is a growth, that we haven't a perfect democracy, that the job of future generations is to work toward its improvement, and that perfection will never be attained. They must be shown the exact stage in which we find ourselves, and we must get them to take a practical attitude toward the problem.

The only way to do this is to give them experience in actual government both within the school and in local, state, and national affairs. It can be done in the schools by finding the spheres in which the children can participate and can actually carry on self-government. The entire school cannot be turned over to the children, since they have not had experience in

self-government. They must be given certain rights and these rights increased as their ability in governing themselves increases.

The mistakes made in self-government in the past have been in turning over to student bodies too much power at one time and in giving them self-expression in the wrong fields. The resulting mistakes on the part of the students were so numerous that most schools gave up in disgust and placed the blame, not on school authorities where it should have been placed, but upon the student body. When the adult population of our country makes so many mistakes, how can we expect children to govern themselves smoothly and uniformly?

When our children are given the proper experience in self-government they can be made to see that democracy is a spirit, a growing process that with all its present faults possesses all the machinery by which mankind can work toward the goal of perfect democracy. There is nothing wrong with democracy as a principle of government, the only thing wrong is the way we practice it. We are the ones who have to improve.

When the churches and schools realize their possibilities, then they can accomplish great things in the home and on the coming generations toward instilling the spirit of democracy into our people.

Interpreting the Spirit of American Democracy: The School

By Herbert Drennon
Dean of the Graduate School, Mississippi State College

My remarks are limited to tax-supported schools only.

The public school is one of the most important social agencies, a virtual melting-pot, for interpreting the spirit of American democracy. Ideally at least, we have assumed that where all voices are to be heard it is imperative that public education be fostered and encouraged. This should mean the equal rights of all to the fruits of public education, on both the lower and higher levels, provided those who desire an education have the ability to take advantage of its opportunities. Two points should be kept in mind: (a) patterns of education should be cut to the living needs of the people; (b) ability, aptitude, and desire on the part of the individual should determine the kind of education the State is to give him at public expense.

Though our ideal of democratic education is perhaps the best in the world, in practice—for one reason or another—we have manifested grievous shortcomings. How can equal educational opportunities be open to all of our children of democracy if (a) one group of children goes to schools where there are library and laboratory facilities adequate to its needs and another does not? (b) if one school employs its teachers on the basis of training, experience, teaching ability, and professional interests and another does not?

(c) if one school is governed and operated with pupil interest and needs in mind and another is governed with little regard for these factors?

Sooner or later something more definite will have to be done to improve the educational opportunities of Negroes in tax-supported schools if the spirit of democracy is to be interpreted fairly where all are concerned. This matter, if the signs of the times count for anything, is not to be dodged forever. Negro education needs more intelligent support from the white leadership of the South than it is getting. One of the first steps to be taken is to secure a realistic and trustworthy picture of present conditions in our Negro schools. Among other things, such a report will most likely show that (a) the physical facilities of the Negro schools are woefully insufficient, (b) the schools are inadequately staffed and, (c) the teachers are poorly prepared for their jobs. Take the third point just mentioned. At present we have little or no program in force for training Negro teachers for their profession. Though the salaries of Negro teachers are appallingly low, many of them doubtless are overpaid when one considers the quality of service they have been trained to render. Until the facilities for Negro education have been greatly improved, I fear that we are going to prove ourselves laggard in the matter of interpreting the spirit of democracy for them so far as education is concerned.

In both the public schools and the tax-supported higher institutions of learning we are just now awakening to the social implications of our profession. Most of the schools, however, still lack a socialized program of education that reaches beyond the limits of the classroom or college campus. In the near future I expect to see our schools become more functional as community agencies, touching the manifold interests of youth in school and adults out of school, as our educational leaders become more aware of the social implications of the profession which they follow. We are going to be obliged to do a first-class job in the classroom and also a first-class job in the community as such. This program will need administrators who concern themselves with more than school budgets and transportation problems; it will need teachers who will not regard their daily tasks in the schoolroom as their sole responsibility. Both administrators and teachers are going to need more vision than we have manifested heretofore, more insight into ways of improving community living, and more ingenuity for making the democratic philosophy of education work in the living experiences of all citizens, both old and young, and white and black.

What can we do then to improve the educationally underprivileged, both white and colored, in our American democracy? What can we do to stimulate in our teachers an awareness of the social implications of their profession? How can we bring the school and community together in order to touch the lives of old as well as young, and make the school a vital civilizing factor in community development the year round?

At present at Mississippi State College we are experimenting with a socialized program of education that shows much promise. For several years the institution has maintained vital contacts with the people of the state by encouraging different groups, having varied social, vocational, and community interests, to come to the College for frank and intelligent discussions of their local community problems. This year, however, a further step has been taken in our workshop program for teachers. During the year a member of the staff worked in the field in a certain area where he gained first-hand knowledge of local school and community problems. Then the teachers of the community, some of whom had never been on a college campus before, were encouraged to come to the College for a study of their problems. Most of them came—their supervisors sometimes coming with them. They have been working on matters of this kind: What resources are available at the College that I can make use of in my teaching next year? How can I bring my school and community closer together? How can I best realize the social implications of my teaching job in the community I serve? In democratic fashion these teachers are seriously going about the job of trying to make their teaching serve best in their respective communities. This looks like good democratic procedure to me.

Yes, we have a good philosophy of democratic education. Are we moving as fast as we can towards making it functional in our American way of life?

Interpreting the Spirit of Democracy: By the Schools

By George M. Crutsinger
Dean, Hardin Junior College

If I may be allowed to paraphrase, let me say that democracy is a spirit, and they who would honor it must honor it in spirit and in truth. We will not honor democracy nor preserve it as a way of life if we rely solely upon the forms and machinery of government. Government, regardless of its forms and machinery, can be no better than the character of the people who operate the machinery. The time to begin to develop the spirit of democracy or any other spirit is in youth, so that when people are old they will not depart from it. Accordingly, in my judgment the schools of America are potentially the most powerful agencies for interpreting and developing democracy.

That the schools have not done a very complete job up to date seems evident from the results of a number of investigations. This is not said in a spirit of carping criticism. Professional workers in education cannot afford to be like the bird that flew backward because he didn't care where he was going and was interested only in seeing where he had been. The importance of our responsibilities makes it obligatory that we be forward-looking. There are two respects in which I think the schools can make a much greater con-

tribution to the realization of democracy than they have yet done. The first is by expanding their offerings to meet the needs and the abilities and the interests of our youth. The second is to conduct the internal administration of our schools so that young people may get a lot of practice in being citizens of a democratic social unit. It is manifestly impossible to teach the spirit of democracy by preaching or by the use of textbooks only. We learn that as we do most other things—by doing.

As has been so aptly pointed out by the reports of the American Youth Commission, the schools of America were set up for the purpose of promoting equality of opportunity among our citizens. Among the things that history teaches is that democracy as a way of life is very difficult if not impossible to maintain in a society where great inequalities exist. These reports further point out that due to the changing times and to the force of tradition, our schools, especially those at the secondary and college levels, are in danger of promoting the very inequalities which they were designed originally to prevent; for these schools have become very highly selective in their character. They are not offering all the kinds of training which will prepare individuals to do better those worthwhile things that they will do anyway. Even the most conservative among us will have to admit that our secondary and collegiate programs are of real benefit to only a small percentage of the youth population. It is a known fact that around sixty-five or seventy per cent of the enrollment in many of our colleges and universities never finish any kind of curriculum that terminates in a degree, and these people represent the pick of the secondary-school crop.

As to the second great opportunity and obligation that faces the schools, that of affording opportunities for practice in democracy, we have only to recall what psychology teaches regarding the laws of learning. Limitation of space prohibits the detailed discussion of these laws, but a few suggestions regarding their application in school management may be sufficient. In the first place, pupils can be easily interested in helping to have a good school. In the second place, they can readily learn how to make their contribution to such a school, and they can learn that most effectively by being given opportunities to do something about it. In the third place, the school is about the largest social unit toward which young people can be expected to develop a sense of active patriotism. National patriotism is beyond their maturity level. It seems to me sensible to conclude that if pupils can learn to be patriotic citizens of their school, there is a better chance of their being patriotic citizens of their state and nation when they become adults.

An expanded program of training should set up what are commonly called terminal curricula for a large proportion of the pupils who go to school. Some of these curricula should be of a general cultural nature and should be planned to be completed with the first or second post-high-school year. A second group of such curricula should lead definitely to vocational

efficiency by the end of the first or second post-high-school year. There are a great many jobs of a semi-technical nature for which young men and women should receive specific preparation. There is not space to describe these jobs, but it seems to me that schools could make a great contribution to the interpretation and realization of democracy if they could prepare a large part of their students for economic independence when they come to the adult world. Of course, a very important feature of such a program will have to be what is commonly called guidance but which in reality is diagnosis of abilities and interests. In no sense should this guidance be a regimentation. The terminal curricula either cultural or vocational should have their beginnings in the upper levels of the elementary schools and continue through the post-high-school years.

When thinking about giving students opportunities to help develop their school we must recognize that there is no such thing as student government. Ultimate responsibility for the government of a school must rest upon duly appointed officials. However, at all levels of the school system students can successfully participate in the management and conduct of internal affairs. It seems to be impossible to train citizens for participation in adult democracy unless we give them practice as citizens of miniature democracies known as schools. And unfortunately it seems that too many of our schools have been conducted as autocracies or totalitarian regimes. Students can efficiently share in the management of the school through such devices as student councils democratically selected and committees set up by these councils. In some schools these councils have very efficiently managed the operation of a merit badge system which rewards proper behavior and good citizenship. Such a plan does not foster bad behavior by advertising it through prohibitions. The techniques of this procedure of responsibility placed upon students must be adjusted to the maturity level of the students, but the principle of it is the same at any level. In order to do these things, however, it is necessary for those of us in administrative or teaching positions to have confidence in the integrity of boys and girls and confidence in their abilities to learn the fundamental attitudes of democratic citizenship. We could do no better than to remember the words of the Master Teacher when He said, "Suffer the little children to come unto me and forbid them not, for of such is the kingdom of God."

Is Democracy Possible?

By P. L. Hamlett
Principal, Middlesboro High School, Kentucky

After considering the seven subtopic areas enumerated—family, labor, industry, press, schools, religion, politics—I find it almost impossible to choose the areas among those mentioned in which the spirit of democracy

is best interpreted today. There seems to be little doubt that in each area there exists a definite pattern or ideal; but we find many evidences which would lead one to conclude that the spirit of true democracy would fall short of the ideal in all of the realms mentioned. It is doubtful in the mind of the writer if any ideal can be lived up to as long as we recognize the differences which exist in families and family background, race and color, differences in the ranks of labor, in the views and power of the press and radio, differences between public supported spheres and privately supported spheres of influence, differences in administration and management, wealth and power in institutions, differences in rank and degree of religion and religious beliefs, and finally the differences in power in politics.

To express equality in opportunity in any one of these areas would suggest an elimination of these differences, which in the mind of the writer would appear hopeless in the view of our accepted economic way of life. In ideal we recognize equality; in practice it appears that we recognize competition and the balance of power in all spheres.

In the family there must be a head. In labor there must be the directing head. In industry, to those who produce the best must go the greater profits. To the press with the greatest circulation must go the greatest fame, tradition and power. To the Church with the most popular religion must go the greatest number of worshippers and followers. To the politician with the greatest ability to get votes must go the largest amount of power and prestige. The opportunity of expressing democracy exists in those areas by those who control and represent their respective areas. Those who command the greatest amount of wealth, power, and prestige can have the greatest opportunity in all areas.

I can offer no remedy or plan better than that offered by the Christian ideal. If it can be put into actual practice on week days as well as on the Sabbath, then we shall be proud to say that we are indeed a democratic nation in all of our spheres of activity. But appraised in terms of the present economic, social, and political objectives no sphere can be truly democratic except in name and tradition.

Discussion of the Proposed Changes in Standards of the Association

1. *The Proposed Library Standard*

The Committee on Standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools proposed at the Memphis meeting that Article 10, Section VI (2) be changed so that the last sentence shall read as follows: "Library space should be sufficient to accommodate not less than fifteen to twenty-five per cent of the enrollment, allowing twenty-five square feet per person." This recommendation is on the table for adoption at the Forty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Association at Louisville, Kentucky, December 1-5, 1941. The QUARTERLY announced in its May issue that any persons connected with member schools and colleges of the Southern Association were invited to discuss the standard as proposed. The following contributions were received in time for inclusion in this issue of the QUARTERLY. Further contributions are welcome to be published in the November issue.

Q. M. SMITH, *State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee*

The revision proposing increased library space meets no special objection, but there is no particular demand for this revision at the present time.

H. O. STROHECKER, *High School of Charleston, South Carolina*

I should like very much to go on record as objecting to the proposed change in Article 10, Section VI (2) in regard to libraries. The change is entirely too drastic, too costly, and needs serious consideration before any action is taken. In view of the national emergency we are facing, surely any change which would involve the enlarging or remodelling of school buildings is not a good one. To tabulate my objections, I offer the following:

Objections to Change of Article 10, Section VI (2)

1. School buildings not large enough to comply with ruling;
2. Ruling unnecessary, as provision can always be made to accommodate student body either through scheduling or some such arrangement;
3. It is highly undesirable to have too large an attendance in the library at one time from a disciplinary and efficiency point of view;
4. The change would necessitate a larger staff of librarians;
5. Emphasis is thrown on physical size rather than on service (a serious mistake);
6. Finally, the requirement of twenty-five square feet per person for only ten per cent of the enrollment has been satisfactory.

H. T. Moncure, *George Washington High School, Alexandria, Virginia*

In reference to the library standard, it appears that the number of feet required by an individual may rightly be determined for the first hundred and a graduated number of less dimensions for each additional hundred. From observation in a school of sixteen or seventeen hundred students, I have arrived at the opinion that this situation may be studied with some degree of profit.

There is a question in my mind whether the Association should more than double its opinion as to the amount of library space needed. It is very definitely a hard question for us school people to answer when the public votes on a bond issue to build a high school according to existing specifications and in less than five years have its library declared less than half the size it should be, according to accrediting standards.

Please do not construe my argument as contending that ten or fifteen square feet per person are sufficient. I do feel that considerable research may not find twenty-five feet the necessary minimum.

Joel L. Fletcher, *Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette*

With respect to the proposed new amendment for secondary school libraries, I feel that it is a little heavy for the present time. A great many school libraries would not find it possible to enlarge their library facilities to meet it within a reasonable time. This is particularly true of the allowance of twenty-five square feet per person for fifteen to twenty-five per cent of the total enrollment. Of course, this standard is something desirable and toward which to work in the future. I have noticed in past years that the standards set up for high school libraries have not in many cases been enforced, and many exceptions have had to be allowed for years. Some schools probably do not even meet present standards. I am not in favor, therefore, of setting up standards that could not be carried out within a reasonable time. However, I might point out that standards of this kind affect only high schools, and it might be well to allow the high school people to settle this matter for themselves, without intervention from the college group.

W. J. McConnell, *North Texas State Teachers College, Denton*

I have discussed Article 10, which pertains to the size of the library of secondary schools with Dr. Matthews, Director of the campus High School, and he says that he believes this is a good thing, but that many of the libraries are not now meeting the *ten* per cent requirement.

President G. D. Humphrey of Mississippi State College expressed simple approval of the proposed standard.

The following article was submitted to the QUARTERLY before the discussion of the old standard was called for. It does not deal directly with the new standard, but does point out quite appropriately that perhaps two of the most important problems in connection with the library are (1) a good selection of books to be made available and (2) encouraging a wide reading of them once they are in the library. Whether "twenty-five square feet per person" will assist in these two major objectives, Superintendent Hough does not say.

The Practical Application of Library Standards*

By FRANK HOUGH
Superintendent the Shaw School, Shaw, Mississippi

I am far from being a professional librarian; doubtless I am presumptuous in trying to talk about the application of school library standards to professional librarians, but I am an enthusiastic amateur; in fact, I am a crank about books and reading. Dr. Samuel Johnson once wrote: "They who do not read can have nothing to think and little to say." Long ago I became committed to the belief that the library is the heart of the school. "Sawney" Webb, founder of the famous Webb School, used to say, "The purpose of an education is to teach one to read." That was the golden text of his educational theory. When he opened his school in 1886 he had $12,000.00, of which he put $8,000.00 into books and $4,000.00 into buildings. He felt that books as the tools of learning and culture were more important than fine buildings, and who will say that he was wrong?

You are familiar with our library standards, those of the State Department of Education, and those of the Southern Association. They are good as far as they go, but we are interested, primarily, in the application of those standards. There are two obvious steps. The first, naturally, is the selection of the books. This isn't as simple as it sounds unless you are lazy or ignorant and use a ready-made list. There are certain staples in books of reference, general literature, and fiction which anyone can buy; but when you get away from the staples, you and the high school teachers should by all means *know* the books that you are buying. Rather silly to buy a book that can't be used. We haven't time to discuss criteria for the selection of books. You must read widely, you must be able to discriminate, particularly among books published during the past fifteen or twenty years. The reviewers cannot always be trusted. Some of the most highly praised books simply won't do for high school libraries. In fiction, for example, those darlings of the monthly book clubs, *The Grapes of Wrath* and *For Whom the Bell Tolls*, are slime and B grade at that, and many historical novels that

* Talk delivered before group meeting of Mississippi Library Association, November 16, 1940.

are otherwise excellent such as *Stars of the Sea*, *Oh Promised Land*, *Foundation Stone*, *Raleigh's Eden*, etc. are marred by excessive naturalism. Those who encourage high school youngsters to read such books are on a level with purveyors of marihuana cigarettes. So many talented writers appear to revel in describing the biological processes. Perhaps some of them are still obsessed with the erotic imagination of their youth. Books can be robust and realistic without being salacious; most of the masterpieces of twenty-four centuries and many excellent productions of the present day attest that. I once heard a very wise old professor of literature say in speaking of naturalism in literature, "The Greek sculptors managed to attain perfection without showing the heart, lungs, and other internal organs of the human body."

The second step in the proper application of library standards is the attainment of a wide use of the books. What matter if you have the finest collection of books in Mississippi and the boys and girls don't read them? Books, books everywhere, and not a soul to read them. Of course, good old compulsion will be used for some books—reference books and the more formidable of the classics—but compulsion doesn't lead many boys and girls to develop a love of reading. Boys and girls must be guided, tolled, led, persuaded to see the pleasure as well as profit to be derived from reading. That's your job, yours and the high school teachers'. In our own school we have had a moderate degree of success in developing a love of reading, and perhaps you will be interested in our methods. They are simple; doubtless some of you have better ones. In the first place we are fortunate in possessing more books than many other schools of our size—about 1,500 in our Elementary Library and 4,000 in our Junior-Senior High School Library —the result of sixteen years of more or less careful collecting.

In neither junior nor senior high school English classes do we require many specific titles. We use comprehensive rather than restrictive lists. Each class has two to three required books and about thirty books from which to select one per month and in addition about a dozen "three-point" books. For our three history classes we have accumulated through rather careful selection a fairly large collection of historical novels covering practically every important period of history. In ancient history we are using about thirty different titles; in medieval and modern, sixty; and in U. S. history, sixty. About four are required in each class and the others are "three-point" books. In other words, we pay the youngsters for reading thrilling books. None of these lists is crystallized; a few changes are made every year.

If our Shaw boys and girls leave high school without at least a tolerance for reading, I feel that the fault lies with our staff, and I venture to say this to you: If your library facilities are adequate and if more than a small percentage of your boys and girls depart from high school indifferent to the pleasure and profit to be found in books, don't blame the movies, the radio,

cars, "juke" houses—rather examine your own house. Perhaps there are cobwebs to be cleaned out, or maybe the roof leaks.

2. *The Proposed Standard on Summer Schools*

The standard proposed by the Committee on Standards of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education relating to summer schools is now on the table for adoption at the Forty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Association, Louisville, Kentucky, December 1-5, 1941, as follows:

> "*Proposed Standard Twenty-One—Summer Schools.* Member institutions shall observe in their respective summer schools, which they may conduct, the same standards as they are required to observe in the regular session with respect to such matters as qualification of teachers; admission of students as candidates for degrees; character of educational offerings; content, length, and quality of courses; class size; faculty teaching load; limitations of student hours; library facilities; proportionate per capita expenditures for instructional purposes; and other matters affecting the quality of academic work.
>
> "Expenditures made for the support of any educational function of the summer school shall not be considered in determining the amount of financial support given to the educational program of the regular nine-months session."

The following contributions in discussion of Proposed Standard Twenty-One were received in time for inclusion in this issue of the QUARTERLY. Further contributions are welcome to be published in the November issue.

C. R. WOOD, *State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Alabama*

I am for the new Standard Twenty-One on summer schools. It seems to me that our purposes, particularly in teachers colleges in the summer school, are identical with those of the regular session. Then why should there be a different standard on such matters as qualifications of teachers of any other matter of instructional importance? We should demand just as high a quality of academic work in our summer schools as any other time. Many students in the teachers colleges rarely attend college except in the summer.

PAUL P. BOYD, *University of Kentucky, Lexington*

Our proposed standard for summer schools indicates that the Committee on Standards of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education recognizes a need for improvement in the field of summer school instruction. We have stated rather well in our standards what the best thought of the time is concerning the essentials of an effective college, but we have failed until now to take cognizance of the fact that standards for the regular college year may be one thing while standards for the summer terms may be another.

The present attempt to bring the summer work more nearly up to the level of that of the regular semester is therefore timely and welcome.

That summer schools have not, in many instances, held to the same standards as those of the usual college year is natural and understandable. I remember that quite some years ago, when I was professor in a small college drawing the magnificent salary of $1,200 a year, I was very glad to teach in the summer term of six weeks in order to make an extra seventy-five dollars. I was very glad also to teach a course in Education, although I had never studied the subject in college or university. You certainly can't blame the professors for taking such opportunities to approximate a decent wage. I imagine that in some of our smaller colleges, unhappy conditions still exist. There is a local demand for a summer school. There is no money in the regular budget to support it. It must pay its own way. Teachers come to the end of the year with their debts unpaid, their insurance premiums arising to haunt them. So the president says to his faculty, "You teachers can run this summer school if you want to and divide up whatever profits there are." Students, in the early days of the summer school at my own university, accused the faculty of "flunking" students so that they could make some extra money out of them in the summer.

The low salary scale is certainly one of the weaknesses in the present situation. It is safe to say that very few of the liberal arts professors are receiving as much a month for their work in the summer as they do in the regular year. This is true in spite of the fact that the work is harder and more intensive.

The professor's summer work does not involve so many student credit hours, but it does take more hours per day because there will be often one student who just must have a particular course, or another student who has had all the courses scheduled and must be provided for with what amounts to an independent work course. And always on top of such overloading there are the Masters' theses that must be supervised and if possible ground out with an extra amount of supervision in an unusually short time. Many teachers are not only relatively underpaid, but they have their noses to the grindstone to an extent unknown in the regular year. The only saving feature of this situation is the quality of their students. They as a class are more mature, more keenly motivated, and more industrious. Let us be thankful for that.

One other bad feature of some summer schools is the tendency to shorten the term. A three-credit class, let us say, will meet in a semester forty-eight times for fifty minute periods or for a total of 2,400 minutes. Let us then in six weeks have the class meet thirty times for eighty minutes each. Or let's go one better and have a five weeks' term and have this class meet six times a week, eighty minutes a day. These are common practices. I have heard of one instance where a class has met five weeks, five periods a week

in periods of ninety-six minutes. In some instances courses of two and a half weeks or three weeks are given, the assumption being that so long as you spend 2,400 minutes in class and pass the tests (if any) and final examination (if any) you deserve three credits. Perhaps the reduction to the absurd will continue until some one will give a three-credit course meeting in one stretch for forty hours.

Such schemes may be correct mathematically but very incorrect educationally. The old president's dictum, that when the Lord wished to make a squash he took eight weeks but for an oak he took fifty years, may have some application here. We thought that we had gotten away from the old "Chemistry in Twelve Weeks" books that were current thirty or forty years ago, but have we? The importance of time for matured thought is not to be denied. Facts of a textbook may be adsorbed quickly and held until after an examination, but the educational values are lost if the interval is too short. Furthermore, many courses require extensive supplementary reading and written reports that must be curtailed if the term is shortened. I suspect that in many cases even the usual content of the course is reduced.

Heaped on top of these handicaps is the tendency that is evident in many of our summer schools to fill the six weeks with a round of lectures, plays, concerts, picnics, and so on. The object seems partly to make the stay of the student so pleasant that he will be sure to return. Competition appears in the picture. The instructors must be fed. But unfortunately all these extracurricular opportunities, while faintly educative, are distractions for the students who presumably must digest an immense amount of subject matter in a very short time.

The summer school problem is a real one and pressing. The ideal solution would have the summer school budget a part of the regular year's budget, as it is I believe in most of the teachers' colleges. The salaries should be at the same rate. The teaching loads should be the same. Time should be allowed for study. There should be a formula devised according to which, for a given total recitation time, credits would decrease as the length of the term decreases. Perhaps course efficiency approximates the curve of normal distribution.

Q. M. Smith, *State Teachers College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee*

The new standard proposed for expenditures for summer school instruction would be an unnecessary burden on institutions having summer schools. However, practically all standards can be met during the summer term with the exception of expenditures for salaries for instructional purposes. It is possible to employ a teaching staff, either members of the regular staff or visiting professors, at reduced salaries during the summer term without impairing the efficiency of instruction. Many college professors would otherwise be unemployed during the summer. The present practice enables the

professor and the college to conserve and reserve finances for the nine months term which is the period of heavy responsibility in all phases of instruction, administration and maintenance. Although highly desirable, it would be impossible for many of the member colleges to meet the standard requiring the same salary schedule through the summer.

H. L. Moncure, *George Washington High School, Alexandria, Virginia*

In reply to your request of May 25, permit me to suggest that the new standard proposed by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Learning should be made equally applicable to summer schools in secondary schools as to those in colleges.

Joel L. Fletcher, *Southwestern Louisiana Institute, Lafayette*

The new Standard Twenty-One with respect to summer schools seems to me to be very reasonable, and I believe the time has come when some such standard should be set up, in view of the irregular manner in which large numbers of summer schools in the Southern Association are conducted. The only provisions of this standard that might affect us are those referring to teaching load and to proportionate per capita expenditures for instructional purposes. At the present time, our normal teaching load for the summer is eighteen hours, which is two hours above the regular minimum load. However, we could easily meet this situation by having summer school classes meet five hours a week instead of six hours under the present arrangement. Five hours a week for nine weeks will give forty-five recitations during the summer school, which meets the minimum requirements as to time devoted to instruction.

The present requirement as to per capita expenditures for instructional purposes is $150 per full-time student enrolled. On the basis of forty-thousand dollars spent for a summer school with one thousand students, the per capita expenditures would be at the rate of $160. With an allotment of thirty thousand dollars, proposed for the summer school of 1942, with a student enrollment of eight hundred or eight hundred and fifty, we could still equal the proportionate per capita expenditures of $150. The principal difficulty with imposing a standard of this kind on a summer school will arise in the manner of keeping accounts. It would necessitate figuring per capita cost of the nine months' regular session as one undertaking and a separate cost on the summer school as another undertaking. I doubt if our system of accounting as to educational and laboratory supplies is such that the exact cost of the two periods could be accurately segregated. Should the standard be adopted, we should insist on permission to approximate cost where desirable.

W. F. McConnell, *North Texas State Teachers College, Denton*

I see nothing whatever wrong with the proposed Standard Twenty-One. There should be no essential difference in the summer session and in the long session in respect to the points touched upon by this standard.

President G. D. Humphrey, of Mississippi State College, expressed simple approval of the proposed standard.

Editorial Notes

Forty-sixth Annual Meeting, December 1-5, 1941
Brown Hotel, Louisville, Kentucky

The Forty-sixth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association is scheduled for Louisville, Kentucky, December 1-5, 1941. The Brown has been chosen as the headquarters hotel.

Secretary Shelton Phelps makes the following announcement of the 1941 meeting of the Association:

> The Forty-sixth Annual Meeting will be held at Louisville, Kentucky, beginning on December 1 and ending on December 5. All meetings will be held in the Brown Hotel, and all offices will be located there. The prices for rooms at the Brown will be as follows: room for one person, $3.00 per day; room for two persons, twin beds, $5.00 per day. There are 300 rooms available at the Brown Hotel. The following rates are obtainable at the Kentucky Hotel: 100 single rooms at $3.00 per day; 100 double rooms at $5.00 per day. The Seelbach Hotel lists 150 rooms at: single rooms at $2.50 per day; double rooms at $4.50 per day.

Reservations should be made in advance and are being received by the hotels now. If any members of the Association wish to go to Louisville one or two days before December 1, they should make reservations also for the extra days. Of course the rates apply to the wives or guests of members of the Association who attend the meeting with them, and to guests of the Association invited to the meeting.

Meetings Held in Connection with the Southern Association

Twentieth Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges for Women
Twelfth Annual Conference of Adademic Deans of the Southern States
Ninth Annual Conference of Summer School Directors of the Southern States

Programs for the meetings usually held in connection with the Southern Association, including those included in the caption of this note, will be printed along with the regular program of the Association in the November issue of the QUARTERLY. The officers of all organizations intending to meet with the Association are urged to send in copy by October 1. It will be recalled that representatives of the Junior Colleges held a conference

which they expected to make an annual event. The QUARTERLY will be glad to publish any program they may plan for this year, if their officers mail it in by September 20.

Interpreting the Spirit of Democracy: An Open Forum for All Interested Members

Attention is called again to the forum announced on page 302 of the May QUARTERLY. The articles published in this issue of the QUARTERLY are the first received. Anyone wishing to participate in the forum should mail his contribution before September 20. All contributions are welcome.

Proposed Changes in Standards

The following letter has gone forward to all delegates registered at the last meeting of the Association:

> "As one who attended the Memphis meeting last December, you are invited to contribute to the discussion that will be printed in the August and November issues of the QUARTERLY. We shall be glad to have a contribution setting forth *your opinion as to the new proposed standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools and the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education that are set forth on the enclosed sheet.*
>
> "Your contribution, of from two hundred to one thousand words, should be in hand not later than July 5 for the August issue or September 5* for the November issue, in order that the editor may have time to compile the replies. If you wish to contribute to the discussion of the standards . . . , we shall be glad to have your contributions to both discussions."

The "enclosed sheet" referred to in the letter is as follows:

> "The following are new standards proposed by the Commissions of the Association. The Association is glad to provide space for any discussion interested school men may wish to contribute.
>
> "The new standard proposed by the Commission on Secondary Schools is:
>
> > 'That Article 10, Section VI (2) be changed so that the last sentence shall read as follows: Library space should be sufficient to accommodate not less than fifteen to twenty-five per cent of the enrollment, allowing twenty-five square feet per person. (Note —The present requirement is accommodation of *ten* per cent of the enrollment.)'

* September 20 will be satisfactory if there are not too many late contributions.—EDITOR.

"The new standard proposed by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education is:

> '*Standard Twenty-one.—Summer Schools.* Member Institutions shall observe in their respective summer schools, which they may conduct, the same standards as they are required to observe in the regular session with respect to such matters as qualification of teachers; admission of students as candidates for degrees; character of educational offerings; content, length, and quality of courses; class size; faculty teaching load; limitations of student hours; library facilities; proportionate per capita expenditures for instructional purposes; and other matters affecting the quality of academic work.
>
> 'Expenditures for the support of any educational function of the summer school shall not be considered in determining the amount of financial support given to the educational program of the regular nine-month session.
>
> (NOTE.—There is at present no statement of a standard for summer schools.)' "

We are printing all communications dealing with these proposed changes that were received in time for publication in this issue. Anyone else connected with a member school who desires to participate in the discussion is invited to send in his contribution before September 20.

The Situation in Georgia

The Editor of the QUARTERLY has received inquiry as to the situation in Georgia in which it appears that political leaders are following a course which apparently would compel educational leaders to conform to the wishes of politicians in order to hold their jobs. The facts as to the situation that have come to the QUARTERLY are these:

> Certain charges not affecting the professional work of Dean Walter D. Cocking of the School of Education, University of Georgia, but having to do with his connection with the Rosenwald Fund and his alleged views as to the higher* education of Negroes, were made against him before the State Board of Regents by Governor Eugene Talmadge. The State Board of Regents voted to retain Dr. Cocking. The Governor then demanded the resignation of three members of the Board. Two new members of the Board were subsequently appointed to fill vacancies arising: Honorable James S. Peters, Chairman of the State Democratic Executive Committee, and Judge Joe B. Jackson. The reorganized Board, after somewhat embittered public hearings, at which Gov-

* One version of the charges claimed that Dr. Cocking favored co-education of the races in demonstration schools for teacher-training.—EDITOR.

ernor Talmadge personally appeared to prosecute his charges, dismissed Dean Cocking. Similar action took place in regard to Dr. Marvin Pittman, President of Georgia Teachers College at Statesboro, he also failing of re-election at the meeting of the reorganized Board of Regents. As part of the same general political picture, J. Harold Saxon, High School Inspector who has been Chairman of the Georgia State Committee of the Secondary Commission, no longer has connection with the public school system.

As if anticipating the possibility that the Southern Association might deplore policies or practices making the teachers and administrative officers of Georgia schools depend for their tenure of office upon whether their social and political views happen to agree with those of whatever faction may at a given moment control the state government, the friends of Governor Talmadge passed Bill No. 105 in the Georgia Senate condemning the Association as having any right to set standards affecting Georgia Schools.

The entire situation is interesting as showing the trend in America, similar to that so clearly dominant in totalitarian countries, on the part of political leaders to demand that the schools and other instrumentalities of public information and enlightenment be under political control. It is interesting to notice that Governor Talmadge has recently made bitter comments upon Atlanta and other Georgia newspapers that reported the hearings in the Cocking and Pittman cases. Of course there is nothing new in the fact that political leaders desire their followers in office and wish radio and press to support them; but in view of the general world situation and the American assumption that we believe in freedom of speech and press, the Georgia situation is one of the most interesting in the United States at this time.

It is fairly common for a teacher or administrator in the public schools to arouse the personal resentment of influential individuals and now and then lose his job as a result. It also happens, probably very rarely, that teachers enforce higher standards of grading and promotions than they are able to induce their communities to approve, with resulting failure on the part of the teacher to receive re-election. Such instances mean no more than that teachers are public servants dependent in a degree upon popular favor for re-election. Instances of the kinds suggested do not make the public schools a part of the political spoils system; in fact such dismissals and failures of re-election sometimes run counter to the wishes of political bosses, being clearly the results of personal resentments, and not of political maneuvering. On the other hand, the Georgia situation clearly demonstrates the ability of a popular political leader, who has for several years given and taken hard blows in Georgia factional politics, to pick out two employees of the Georgia University system and demand their dismissal,

with the further clear demonstration of the power to use the political machinery of the state so to change the governing board as to achieve his wishes. Governor Talmadge has demonstrated that he has the power to "hire and fire" in the educational institutions of the state, just as he has in any department of the state government more generally regarded as political. In other words, the historical slogan, "To the victor belongs the spoils," applies with full force to positions in the Georgia University system. The fact that the overwhelming majority of the able faculty of the Georgia schools will as a matter of conscience go on doing their duty day in and day out cannot blind either them or their friends to the threat hanging over them if they in the performance of their duties or in exercising the ordinary rights of citizenship incur the displeasure of the political leaders of their state. The merits or demerits of Governor Talmadge as the political leader who is for the time being in the saddle are merely a secondary consideration in the matter. He has demonstrated that the Georgia set-up can be used effectively to subordinate education to factional political control. There is evidence that the tenure of teachers and administrators in the University system of Georgia is really limited to one-year by the system of annual elections, with the possibility of discharge even within the year for causes having nothing to do with either education or morals.